

The Nation

VOL. LVIII—NO. 1490.

THURSDAY, JANUARY 18, 1894.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JANUARY 18, 1894.

The Week.

THE letter written by Secretary Carlisle to Senator Voorhees at the latter's request, concerning the state of the Treasury and the means of meeting the existing and impending deficit, has been delayed as long as possible. It shows that the shortage of revenue at the end of the fiscal year, June 30, will probably be \$78,000,000, and that the gold balance is down to \$74,000,000 at the present time. As the amount of greenbacks in the Treasury at the present time is only \$5,000,000, it is evident that \$21,000,000 of the greenback-redemption fund has been used for other purposes than those for which it was accumulated. Looking a little further, we find that the amount of Treasury notes (of 1890) in the Treasury is about \$2,500,000. Subtract this from the last-mentioned sum, and we discover that \$18,500,000 of the greenback-redemption fund has been used to meet the current expenses of the Government. It follows that until other resources are available this process must go on. The secretary must either stop payments in some quarter or continue to take money out of this fund. If he should stop payments, he ought to begin with the salaries of Congressmen in order to teach them a lesson in national finance. It is said that these statesmen think that the secretary has no right to use the greenback-redemption fund for any other purpose than that for which it was accumulated, but that he is required to pay all moneys regularly appropriated by Congress, including the salaries of Senators and Representatives. The only element wanting in this programme is some Wilkins Micawber to show him how to do it.

During the past few weeks there has been a general feeling in financial circles that a bond issue would be a material aid to the revival of business, and some popular misconceptions have grown out of it. A bond issue without any reason for it would not only not promote a revival, but would decisively damage all business interests, since it would imply socialism of the worst kind. There is a plethora of money in the banks, and they would like to lend it on the undoubted security of the Government at a very low rate of interest, but to issue bonds merely for that purpose would be an outrage wholly without justification, and which could not be committed in a country of intelligent people without producing a profound reaction and the most dismal consequences. The

benefits to arise from a bond issue are like those which come to a railroad company from funding its floating debt. We are all of us part and parcel of a great corporation, which is temporarily embarrassed. It has liabilities that it cannot meet, and the reserve of former years is gradually disappearing. One of these liabilities, the most important of all, is that of keeping all kinds of money at par with gold, since all confidence and all credit depend upon this. The way to fund the floating debt and to insure the parity of all kinds of money with gold is to issue bonds temporarily. In other words, a bond issue is useful only to avert greater evils. In this light it would prove very useful, and there is no doubt that it will come, either with or without new authority from Congress.

Mr. Hornblower's nomination has been rejected in the Senate by a combination of the worst Republicans and worst Democrats. Twelve Democrats and fifteen Republicans and three Populists voted for rejection, and eighteen Democrats and six Republicans for confirmation. The thirty opposing Senators are a curious lot, containing nearly everybody who of late years has dragged the Senate down from its former high position. In the first place there are the three half-crazy Populists, Allen of Nebraska, Kyle of South Dakota, and Peffer of Kansas, and Irby of South Carolina, who is a half-Populist. Then there are our own Hill and Murphy, and there is Call of Florida, and Pugh of Alabama, and Gorman of Maryland, and Jones of Arkansas, and Coke of Texas. Among the Republicans there are "Bill" Chandler, and Quay of Pennsylvania, and Carey of Wyoming, and Dolph of Oregon, and Stewart of Nevada, and Shoup of Montana, and Teller of Colorado, and Pettigrew of North Dakota, and Hansbrough of North Dakota, and Perkins of Kansas. In fact, it may be said that there are not among the whole thirty more than two names of men whom any one that cared for the character and dignity of the Senate would put there. The Senators who would naturally have sat in the old Senate all voted for confirmation. It came out in the course of the debate that the President had not consulted the New York Senators before making the nomination, which was probably an error of tactics, but then there is no likelihood that Hill and Murphy would have agreed to it if they had been consulted. Mr. Hornblower had committed an offence against them which they could not afford to forgive. At the same time it must be said that if the President expected to fight them, Mr. Hornblower was an unfortunate candi-

date. They had a strong motive for opposing him, and he was not well enough known out of New York to rally the other Senators to his support. If he had been a judge already, like Judge Lacombe for instance, it would have been much more difficult to defeat him.

Mr. Bourke Cockran made on Saturday one of the best speeches on the tariff that were ever made in the House. It was not only sound in argument but extremely enlivening in the way of humor and repartee. Several of the McKinleyites were sent to grass in the course of the debate, and, among others, Mr. Walker of Massachusetts, who wanted to know whether it would not be a curse to this country if foreign nations would give us all the cotton and woollen goods we need for nothing. Mr. Cockran thought that if it were a curse, the people of Massachusetts would easily reconcile themselves to it. Mr. Walker's idea is that if all the goods we require were sent to us, like manna to the children of Israel, so that we need do nothing but pick them up, that method of supplying our wants would be disadvantageous in an economical sense. By the same reasoning it would be an advantage to us to have short crops of every kind in order that we might work harder for a living. Entertaining such views, it is no wonder that Mr. Walker refused the other day to present to Congress a petition from the Central Labor Union of Worcester, Mass., praying for the passage of the Wilson bill. His breath was nearly taken away when he received the petition, and he has been in a gasping state ever since.

Congressman Payne of this State made a noble attempt the other day to scurry rapidly over one of the rocky bits in the protectionist road. Chairman Wilson had asked how it could be, as long as only about 5 per cent of the workingmen of this country are in protected industries, that the tariff could be alleged to be the cause of high wages. Why, said Mr. Payne with a superior air, it is obvious that the employers of the 95 per cent of unprotected labor must pay wages as high as those earned by protected workmen, or else their employees would leave them in the lurch and go into the protected industries. In other words, all the bricklayers would turn machinists on the spot, and the farm-hands would begin to beat their ploughshares into steel rails. This has a lurking air of absurdity, but that there is a great principle lying perdu in it is clear from the fact that it has already begun to operate. The "Willing Workers" of Cincinnati, an organiza-

tion of the unemployed, have declined to accept an offer of work at \$1 a day. They base this entirely on the unselfish ground that they cannot take any action which would tend to "lower laboring men's wages." They remain willing to work, of course, as their very name implies, but no offers below fifteen cents an hour can be entertained. Evidently they have been reading Congressman Payne's argument.

A national conference on good city government is to be held in Philadelphia on the 25th and 26th of this month, when various gentlemen connected in one way or another with the work of municipal reform will read papers or make addresses. These movements are all excellent because they keep up the interest in the subject, which is so apt to die out between elections. But we hope that the speakers will bear in mind that the charters of various cities, both of New York and Brooklyn for instance, are about as good now as they can be made in the present state of human nature in these parts. If we had the municipal elections separated in time from the State and national elections, and had a single head for the police, instead of a board, and if the terms of the heads of departments were conterminous with the Mayor's, we should in this city be probably as well off as any charter could make us. What we suffer from is the determination of the Republicans to treat every municipal election as a federal election, and vote in it, not on city affairs, but on the tariff or some other federal affair. The result of this is invariably that the bad and dangerous class is able to put its man in the mayoralty, and he fills the subordinate offices with his "pals." In other words, our trouble is, that the respectable classes are always divided, while the others are always united. What is the remedy for this? is the municipal problem.

There is something very refreshing about the manner in which Mr. Alfred T. White, the new commissioner of city works in Brooklyn, begins the discharge of his duties. He has announced a number of the most important appointments which he has to make, and at the same time has given the public a statement as to the changes which he has made, the reasons for making them, the offices which he has still to fill, and the principles which govern his course. In the chief engineer's place he retains the efficient man who has served the city in that position since 1877, and as water purveyor he selects a man who filled the office most acceptably during Mayor Low's two administrations. The new superintendent of streets is a well-

known builder, "who," says Mr. White, "was not an applicant for the place, but who gives up his business and takes this position at my request and in the same spirit in which I take mine." There are twenty-one places in the department above the grade where the civil-service rules apply, and Mr. White announces that he proposes, in the interest of economy, to reduce the number to sixteen by abolishing some and consolidating others. As regards the laborers, he will soon have printed and ready for distribution rules and information concerning appointments somewhat similar to the regulations now in force at the United States navy-yards and in the Boston municipal service, and "framed with the intent of giving a fair chance to all who desire this occupation and of securing to the city the best service when laborers are needed."

The organization of the new Legislature of this State, as revealed in the committee lists of the two houses, leaves no room for doubt as to the governing forces of that body. The ostensible selecting authorities are Senator Saxton and Speaker Malby, but we doubt if there is a person of intelligence in Albany who believes that either of these two men acted as a free agent in his work. Both first came to this city to "consult the authorities," and it is made plain by the outcome that "the authorities" decided that the Legislature should be organized, not on an anti-Tammany or reform basis, but on a Tammany-Republican "deal" basis. The authorities in control of the Republican organization are now working in the interest of party harmony. They are seeking to "build up the organization" by bringing all factions together. They have decided that the old county machine here, with "Jake" Patterson at its head, shall not be overthrown but reorganized, with Patterson and his Boys safe and snug on the inside. They have decided that Tammany shall be not antagonized, but brought to terms, in order that the Republican organization may be nourished with a share in the local offices. The authorities who have reached these conclusions are not Platt and his men alone, but Mr. Depew, and the Hon. Whitelaw Reid, and the Hon. "Jim" Belden, who, in the language of the late Jacob Sharp, "does not stir around for nothing."

Gov. Stone of Mississippi deserves national recognition for the stand which he takes against lawlessness, in his recent message to the Legislature. He tells the law-makers that "nothing calls so loudly for correction as the present miscarriage of justice in trials for homicide," which breeds mob and lynch law, and encourages crime by begetting hope

of escape from punishment; and he confesses that "the reproach that a man of means may slay his fellow-man with impunity is, alas! too true, as often exemplified." This is the most hopeful sign for the future of Mississippi that could be imagined—the admission by her executive that the alleged lawlessness really exists, and that a reform in this matter is the most important question for the Legislature to consider. The great difficulty about this subject has been the unwillingness of the South to confess the discreditable truth. No evil is ever overthrown until its existence is admitted.

It is unfortunate that the Republican National Committee has endorsed the proposition to admit as States Utah, Arizona, New Mexico, and Oklahoma. The Democrats in the House generally favor this policy, with the possible exception of Oklahoma, but it was hoped that the Republicans in the Senate might stand out against it, and that the scheme might thus fail in the pressure of more important matters, even if a majority of the upper branch were favorable. But apparently the Republican managers have concluded that they stand as good a chance as the Democrats of controlling half or more of the proposed new States, encouraged to this view regarding Utah doubtless by their party's recent victory for the first time in a municipal election at Salt Lake City. But it is begging the question to say, as the resolutions adopted by the committee declare, that such Territories as Arizona and New Mexico are "possessed of sufficient population and material resources to support State governments." That might be true, and yet it would still remain true that the rights of statehood ought not to be conferred upon a Territory like New Mexico, whose population is largely composed of ignorant Mexicans and Indians, or like Arizona, which had only 59,620 people (thousands of Indians included) when the last census was taken.

The *Investor's Review* of London, of which Mr. A. J. Wilson is the editor, has a leading article entitled "A Paralytic Bank of England." When a telegraphic notice of this article was published some two weeks ago, very little attention was given to it on this side of the water. The full text of the article, however, is apt to lead to rather sober thinking. The article is not in the nature of a raid on the bank. It is very far from having the appearance of vindictiveness. On the contrary, it has every appearance of respectability and fairness, and the motive of the writer appears to be merely to arrest bad practices, and thus to prevent an ultimate catastrophe of far greater magnitude than collapse of the Barings would have been if the bank had not virtually shouldered that sink-

ing concern. One of the points made by Mr. Wilson is that the bank's published statements are not intelligible. Take, for example, the item "other securities, £24,458,173," which appears in the list of assets. Here is an item exceeding by £10,000,000 sterling the bank's capital, about which the public knows nothing whatever. It may consist of discounted bills of exchange, in which case it would probably be good down to the last sovereign, or nearly so. It may consist of the Baring assets, or the unsalable portion thereof, the Murietta assets, the Leopold Salomon assets, etc., etc. Mr. Wilson offers the opinion that bills of exchange constitute the smallest part of this collection of "other securities," and that the outturn of the heap, while undoubtedly sufficient to satisfy every creditor of the bank, will not be sufficient to warrant the present quotation of the bank's shares in the market. The capital of the bank at par is £14,553,000, but it is bought and sold in the market as though it were £47,000,000, or at more than 300 per cent.

Another point made by Mr. Wilson is that the Bank directors as a body have no better knowledge of the character of the assets than the public generally. In the first place, they are not bankers. In this respect the Bank of England is peculiar. Its directors are all City merchants. This is a tradition. "The new director is never a banker, and rarely a man trained in the hard school of competitive business." The annual meeting of a joint-stock company never becomes interesting as long as good dividends are paid. The Bank's meetings are not exceptional in this regard. This is the way they go, says Mr. Wilson:

"The governor utters a few platitudes about average rates of money, or the duty of other banks to keep larger balances with the bank or to publish better accounts, and, latterly, has added a sanguine prophecy about the excellent prospects of the Baring liquidation. All this is wound up with the motion for declaring a dividend. Then two or three shareholders, generally for years back a Mr. Jones and a Mr. Botley, rise in succession and pour forth, with a touching virginity of mind, some of the most grotesquely inept observations it is possible to imagine. They know nothing about either the bank itself or about banking business, but the bank is their god, and they worship it with the utmost sincerity and heartiness."

All this has a familiar sound. It reads like an echo from the report of the Banca Romana. But the Bank of England is not to be classed with that concern. Nor are there any real grounds for uneasiness if steps are taken to liquidate the Baring and other rubbish that the Bank describes in the wide-embracing phrase "other securities." It would seem, however, that the Government ought to have independent knowledge of the nature of the Bank's bill-book by an examination once each year.

The British Parliament has before it a bill to prohibit advertisements in public

places in rural districts, with elaborate provision for the protection of pillars, posts, gates, fences, walls, hoardings, trees, "or any other thing whatsoever" that is visible to any person on any "highway, main road, footpath, bridle-path, railroad, canal, navigable river, or any place open to the public." That this particular bill has small chance of success at the tag end of a momentous session does not detract from its interest as a sign of the times. It is one of many proofs that the slow-moving Briton has passed beyond the letter-to-the-*Times* stage of protest. Among the amendatory clauses, now under consideration, to the act regulating the powers of the Thames embankment commissioners, is one which authorizes the conservators to "prohibit and regulate the exhibition of advertisements and placards . . . or advertising . . . in any form, on the river . . . or on its banks." The year 1893 also saw the formation of a "national society for checking the abuses of public advertising," with 600 enthusiastic members. Branches of this society in the provincial towns are the next announced step on the programme. The association aims so to arouse and crystallize public opinion that 1894 may not pass without the accomplishment of an act of Parliament that will give the deathblow to present advertising abuses.

The initial step towards such legislation, for town and country, has been already taken. Mr. Edmund Boulnois, M.P., acting in concert with the National Society, has ready the draft of a general bill, to be called the "advertisements regulation act," which will empower all "local authorities" throughout Great Britain and Ireland to regulate advertising, to charge a public fee for the privilege, with a fine (not more than \$25 for each offence, and \$10 a day for every day during which the offence is continued after conviction) for disregard of the law, and with absolute exclusion of any kind or sort of advertisement, or of "advertisement stations," from any "arable land or pasture land, woodland, garden, public park, common, inland or tidal water, foreshore, or any part of the same, . . . or upon any tree, rock (or any part of the soil) . . . or at any railroad station distant more than 200 yards(!) from the nearest booking office." Provision is also to be made for the removal of advertisements and "sky-signs"—beyond the reasonable and necessary professional or business signs attached to buildings—from streets, commons, and other public places. In a word, the British public proposes to control and reform a very potent and insidious phase of public education.

An instructive light is thrown upon the working of our tariff laws by a re-

port of the silk manufacturers of Saint Étienne lately presented to the French Government. In it they took up specifically the question of their exports to the United States, Russia, and Switzerland, and the bearing on their business of tariff laws, foreign and domestic. A study of the table setting forth their sales to the United States reveals some curious relations of their exports to our customs legislation. For a time after the passage of one of our tariff bills the exports invariably fall off, only to rise again as invariably in a year or two. Thus, in 1885 the exports of ribbons and velvets from Saint Étienne fell to \$480,000, though they had amounted to as much as \$1,800,000 before the tariff of 1883 was passed. However, they slowly mounted again till, in 1890, the figures were upwards of \$2,600,000. This was frightful, and McKinley hurried to double the rates. Down fell the Saint Étienne exports, of course, but equally of course they began to rise again, and in 1892 amounted to \$1,260,000, or more than twice what they were in 1885, before McKinley began his holy war against foreigners. Now, to what do the manufacturers attribute their ability thus to encounter hostile legislation? Incredibly as it may seem, to their ingenuity in inventing new processes and products and to their energy and enterprise in building up a foreign trade. Against these arms of precision, what can our barbarous tariff bows and arrows and blunderbusses hope to do?

The prompt trial and conviction of Vaillant, the Parisian bomb-thrower, reflect credit on the French judicial system and show a distinct toning up of the courage of French juries on the subject of anarchist crimes. Two years ago, when Ravachol, even more of a human monster than Vaillant, was tried, the jury were forced to find him guilty, but put "extenuating circumstances" into their verdict, so that his sentence was only imprisonment for life, although he was afterwards tried and executed for another crime. This was generally believed to have been due to the terrorism in which the jury was held by anarchists, but though the same tactics were resorted to in Vaillant's case, the result was different. Doubtless every sane man in France is convinced at last that self-preservation, if no other motive, calls for the speediest possible throttling of the anarchists, and thus judges and juries have now assured them the indispensable backing of a strong public opinion. Our common law ideas of the impartiality of presiding judges leave us somewhat bewildered at the active share in the prosecution taken by the French judges, but, after all, there can be no doubt that substantial justice has been done.

WHAT TO DO WITH HAWAII.

MR. TURPIE of the Senate committee on foreign relations has submitted the following resolution:

"Resolved, That from the facts and papers laid before us by the Executive and other sources, it is unwise, inexpedient, and not in accordance with the character and dignity of the United States to consider further at this time either the treaty or project of annexation of the Hawaiian territory to this country; that the provisional government therein having been duly recognized, the highest international interests require that it shall pursue its own line of polity. Foreign intervention in the political affairs of these islands will be regarded as an act unfriendly to the Government of the United States."

Mr. Frye has a somewhat similar one hanging over since the 3d of January, which condemns interference by our Government, "either by moral influence or physical force, for the restoration of the Queen or the maintenance of the provisional government," and asks that our naval forces should be used only for the protection of the lives and property of American citizens.

Now, the passage of Mr. Turpie's resolution at this time is the very best disposition that can be made of the Hawaiian question. Mr. Dole was perfectly right when he told Mr. Willis that our Government had now no right to interfere with him. This is quite true. Mr. Dole is the head of probably the most rascally and illegitimate little state in the world, but a state it is. His Government has been recognized by us and all other foreign governments which have any dealings with him. It is the only Government of Hawaii. It has the army and navy and the forts, and can kill any of its subjects who disobey it. Mr. Cleveland's request that it should let the Queen come back has been refused. When she rejected the conditions on which our assistance in getting back was first offered to her, Mr. Willis ought not to have meddled further in the business. In transactions of this kind there is no room for change of mind. The refusal of a throne is always final.

The provisional government and "the missionary element" being now masters of the situation, there is no reason why they should not go on and govern the Islands in their own way, and show the wicked natives what a Christian government is. We are responsible to them for nothing except protection from any other foreign power. Meanwhile we have nothing to do but see that American life and property in the Islands are safe. The President has referred the whole business to Congress, but Congress can do nothing except pass an act for the annexation of the Islands, and to do this there seems to be no disposition anywhere. The continuance of the inquiry into the Hawaiian matter and the debating about it can, therefore, have no object but to harass President Cleveland and discredit his administration; but as he is not a candi-

date for reëlection, this seems hardly worth while.

We say hardly worth while, because there are two very serious domestic questions before the country about which Congress can do something, and which imperatively demand its attention. One is the tariff and the other is the deficit in the revenue. The Treasury is on the verge of bankruptcy, and nothing has yet been done to help it out of its fix. Mr. Carlisle asks for authority to make a small temporary loan, and he does not get it. The whole country is waiting for the Wilson bill to be either passed or defeated, and though it is now nearly a year and a half since the people pronounced positively against Republican finance, nothing has been provided to take its place. The debate drags slowly on, and the arguments pro and con which have been doing duty for twenty and, for that matter, for a hundred years, still darken the air of the House. We have reached the middle of January, and the spring trade will open in six weeks more in absolute uncertainty, unless Congress settles down to business.

But it is impossible to dismiss the Hawaiian trouble without remarking on the illustration it affords of the value of a trained diplomatic service. Had we had it, had Mr. Stevens been a man who had learned his trade under competent instructors, his meddling in the conspiracy of "the missionary element" would have been impossible. To an old Blaineite preacher and editor, however, it seemed the most natural thing in the world. So also we may say that a trained man in Mr. Willis's place would have paid no attention to the Queen's second resolution, but would have washed his hands of the matter after receiving the first. This defect in our diplomacy—the absence of men who know the business—is not usually brought out in Europe, because our interference there is exceedingly rare. We have had no serious trouble with any European power since 1812 except the *Alabama* affair with England, and that wrecked two of our ministers, Mr. Motley and Mr. Reverdy Johnson. Our ministers in Europe are usually simple observers. But when we begin to meddle, as in Hawaii, and our agent goes beyond the reach of the telegraph, he is very apt to get out of his depth promptly. A more absurd person than old Mr. Stevens to represent a great nation could hardly be imagined, and yet if "the missionary element" had not asked him to a share in their enterprise, we should never have known it. Unhappily nothing, or very little, is done by our press at home to correct this weakness of our system or enlighten public opinion about it, for no matter of what folly or excess our minister may be guilty abroad, the majority of the editors, on some queer theory of patriotism, proceed to back him with the wildest yells and contortions.

NO STEPS BACKWARD.

MR. TOM JOHNSON of Ohio made a rattling speech on the tariff question last week. Mr. Johnson is a manufacturer of steel rails at Johnstown. He says that no duty on rails is needed, and that it serves only to keep up the "steel-rail combine," enabling them to subsidize a portion of their plant and pay certain members for discharging their hands and standing idle. Mr. Dalzell of Pennsylvania did not believe there was any such pool in existence now, although he admitted that there had been heretofore. Mr. Johnson thereupon gave a narrative of facts within his own knowledge. He said that a new pool was formed last November which agreed to give the manufacturers at Sparrow's Point, Md., \$1,000 a day to close their works and discharge their men. It was a part of the bargain that the others should maintain the price of rails at \$29 per ton. One of the members secretly undersold the pool. Carnegie made war on him, put the price down to \$19, closed him up, and then formed another pool. This explains the mysterious fluctuations in rails a month or two ago. Nobody could get a quotation that could be depended upon. The price was \$29, \$25, \$22, and \$19, all within a very short period, but nobody could quote prices six months ahead. This violent fluctuation was due to the internal spasms of the steel-rail combine. Mr. Dalzell, the representative of Pittsburgh in the House, said that he could not controvert Mr. Johnson's facts, but that if such a pool had been formed, he deprecated it as much as anybody.

Mr. Johnson, in the course of his remarks, spoke of the Carnegie works as the finest mill in the world. This gave Mr. Walker of Massachusetts the opportunity to say that "protection made it." Mr. Johnson denied this. He said that "Bill Jones made it." He and Bill Jones were old friends. He knew exactly what Jones had done, and what Carnegie had done, and what the tariff had done. He considered the tariff a damage to all concerned, and especially to the workingmen. He did not go into the history of the iron trade in this country. If he had done so, he might have told Mr. Walker that the superiority of the United States to Great Britain as a producer of iron was at one time so great that the English manufacturers besought Parliament to prohibit the importation of American iron into the United Kingdom, and prophesied the ruin of their own industries if such importation were allowed; and that this superiority lasted until the policy of protection was adopted by us. Mr. Johnson is right.

The conclusion of Mr. Johnson's speech was weighted with words of wisdom. "I know," he said, "that there are many Democrats here who are not in sympathy with the Democratic platform, and are at heart protectionists. The

part of political wisdom for them is to go over to the Republican party, where, in the struggle now beginning over economic issues, they really belong. But while they remain with the Democracy they must share its fate, and whether they may deem it politically wise or foolish for the Democracy to have begun this fight against protection, they must certainly see that the only safety now is in going forward." These remarks apply to all the Democratic members of both House and Senate. The protected classes are holding meetings everywhere to intimidate Democratic Congressmen. The woollen manufacturers held such a meeting in this city last week. It had no other purpose. Does any Democrat suppose that these woollen men will take him up and reelect him to Congress if he votes against the Wilson bill? Will they rally around any Democratic flag in any part of the country? No; they will give every vote and every dollar they can raise to the election of the Republican nominee of the district, whoever he may be. The Democratic member who allows himself to be intimidated by these protected classes will fall between two stools.

No, there can be no steps backward so far as the Democratic party or individual Democrats are concerned. The only safety is in going forward, and in dragging the decrepit woollen men along. So long as these people are leaning on a tariff of 50, 60, 70, and so on up to 303 per cent. as Mr. Wilson showed the other day, they will never learn to do without it. They will always be under terror of the Ohio political shepherds to such an extent that they will never have time or opportunity to learn their own trade properly. That terror was the reason for last week's meeting. It is not fear of the Wilson bill, but of what the Ohio shepherds may do hereafter if the Wilson bill passes, that brings them together. The shepherds have held the manufacturers responsible for a good stiff duty on wool. There was some show of logic in their position as long as the Republicans were in power. There is no logic in it now, because the woollen manufacturers cannot control the Democratic party as they did control the Republican. Yet the inexorable wool-growers continue to threaten the manufacturers with awful consequences if they allow any bill to pass which contains the item of free wool, even though they may be as innocent as spring lambs of any intention to bring about that result.

THE SOCIALIST'S "OPPORTUNITY."

We have received a letter in defence of socialism which suggests several questions. It maintains that the State is bound to give every man an "opportunity" to work, "to provide for his wants himself." But who is to judge whether "the opportunity to provide for his

wants himself" is a proper and sufficient one—"the State" or the man? You may offer him work, but suppose it is work which he dislikes and for which he says he is not fit—what then? Who shall decide between you? Are you bound to provide every man with work in his own trade—the builder with building, the tailor with clothing making, and so on? If so, what about the market for his products? Who is to see to the sale of the houses or the clothing? At present the employer looks after the market, and if he sees signs that it is overstocked, he cuts down his production. But the State could not do this if it owed every man an "opportunity."

Then, again, how is the question of the reasonableness of a man's "wants" to be settled? If left to himself, he would naturally surround himself with every comfort, including, of course, a modicum of wholesome amusement, such as a night per week at the theatre or opera. If left to the trades unions, they would pay five dollars a day for street-cleaning, and other occupations in proportion. If left to "the State," the question would be passed on by gentlemen anxious to make themselves "solid" with the working classes, and they would undoubtedly make the opportunity as "golden" as possible. And then who is to manage this business of distributing opportunities? The demand for them would be enormous, and it is safe to say that it would take all the business talent of the community, and twice as much more, to meet it with any approach to justice and regularity. Where is this talent to come from? What salaries would you pay for it? And, above all, how would private employers keep these men, or get any work out of them, when the men knew that they had only to go to the Government office to claim an "opportunity" to work in their own way? It is difficult to conceive of any business calling for manual labor continuing very long in operation under a system in which the State competed with the individual capitalist by offering employment on what might be called the laborer's own terms.

Not less important than any of these questions is the question what, under this system, is to become of the large body of industrious, thrifty, and self-controlled people by whom all modern governments are now maintained, who make their own "opportunities," and seek nothing from the State but security. To this class the great body of the people in every modern State belongs. Travel in any direction you will, and you find the country full of them, in farmhouses and in workshops. They are not as a general rule rich. It is as much as they can do to earn a livelihood, pay their taxes, and lay up something for their old age. When they begin life, they try one thing or another till they find their proper place, and ask no favors from any one. Besides supporting themselves they have to support all the ne'er-

do wells and incompetents and paupers in the country. It is a great mistake to suppose that the lazy fellows and the "dead beats" live on air. They are maintained, in some sort of fashion—by gifts, loans, or poor rates—by the industrious and thrifty. It is a great mistake, too, to suppose that the "dead-beats" have no opportunities offered them. There is probably no broken man or failure in the country who has not had, if his health was good, many opportunities offered him when beginning life. He has probably missed them through stupidity, or drunkenness, or unsteadiness, or dishonesty, and he then comes for subsistence on the steady and prosperous. Is not this burden enough for the steady and prosperous?

In case the State offered opportunities to workingmen in bad times, it would, of course, find itself with immense quantities of goods on hand for which there was no market, for the demand for opportunities would be greatest when the demand for goods was slackest. These goods, like all goods made by men who have neither pride in their work nor fear of dismissal before their eyes, would probably be of poor quality, and, in default of purchasers, they would have to be stored, and being stored would depreciate. The outgo for wages and material would, however, continue, and would have to come out of the taxes, and the worse the times were, of course, the heavier the taxes would be, and it is the industrious men who find their own opportunities who would have to pay them. How long would they stand this system? How long would it be before they withdrew the opportunities and drove the opportunity men to the workhouse or the waste lands?

One of the most curious things about socialists is that they never work out their system in detail. We believe there is not in the whole body of socialistic literature, now very large, a single attempt to give us a particular, and minute, and serious account of the machinery of a socialist state. There have been *jeux d'esprit*, like Bellamy's book, and there have been burlesques by writers hostile to the system; but there is not a single book or brochure which tells exactly how the scheme of State provision for everybody would be carried out. In all the socialist writings, the source from which "the State" is to get its income is passed over without mention, and so is the market in which the socialist goods are to be sold. There are, in fact, two great assumptions at the bottom of the whole theory: one is, that the resources of the State are mysterious and inexhaustible; and the other is, that the present well-to-do class would under socialism continue in existence, and not only pay workingmen whatever wages they asked, but joyfully meet all demands made on it in the shape of property and income taxes, and buy all

the State goods, while the laborers had short hours, steady employment, and a fair share of the luxuries. That any such state of things is probable or possible, no proof is ever offered. All our experience of human nature makes it improbable. Every man's experience of his own nature makes it impossible. No sober-minded and industrious man would stay in any such community any more than in a madhouse. The lucubrations of the young professors of political economy about it are as valuable as Bellamy's book, and yet the professors are all possessed with the idea that they are pushing forward the boundaries of a new "science" with wonderful rapidity.

REGULATION OF SECONDARY EDUCATION.

BOTH a starting-point and a goal for the reform of secondary instruction and college-admission examinations in this country have been furnished by the movement begun by a few members of the National Educational Association during the summer of 1892, and guided to a successful issue by a committee of ten, of which President Eliot of Harvard was chairman. The report of this committee has just been printed by the Bureau of Education as a public document, and it is well within the mark to say that no more carefully prepared and comprehensive publication on an educational subject has appeared in this country. In form it resembles the "Lehrpläne und Lehraufgaben" issued from time to time by the Prussian minister of education, but in scope it far surpasses any such document.

The need of such an investigation and report as the committee of ten have made was urged by the colleges and secondary schools in every part of the country. Except in those Western States where a State university stands at the head of the State school system and binds the high schools to itself—as in Michigan, Minnesota, or Nebraska—there is great uncertainty and diversity in the relations of the secondary schools to the colleges, and in the work of the secondary schools themselves. This very investigation, indeed, brought to light the fact that more than forty separate subjects of instruction were to be found on the programmes of prominent secondary schools. It is well known, also, that many of the larger colleges often throw preparatory school work into the greatest confusion by arbitrary changes in their admission examinations.

To secure relief from what was rapidly becoming an intolerable condition of confusion and diversity was not easy. Every important educational interest had to be consulted and brought into co-operation, and the broadest possible basis laid for the reform movement. This was done, in a measure, by having the ap-

pointment of the committee emanate from a thoroughly representative body like the National Educational Association. It was made more certain by the composition of the committee and its admirable mode of procedure. The committee represented in its membership universities and colleges of every type, public high schools and endowed academies, and the special students of educational institutions and administration. Its mode of procedure consisted (1) in putting into specific form the problems to be solved, (2) in determining just what subjects ought to appear on a secondary-school programme, (3) in calling conferences of experts in each of these subjects, and (4) in framing a general report on the conclusions reached by these special conferences.

Nine conferences were appointed, each consisting of ten members, and the list contains the names of many leading American scholars and teachers. Hale and Collar, for example, were members of the Latin conference; D'Ooge, Keep, and Wheeler of that on Greek; Kittridge, Maxwell, and Thurber of that on English; Van Daell and Grandgent of that on other modern languages; Byerly, Fine, Newcomb, and Safford of that on mathematics; Remsen of that on physics and chemistry; Coulter of that on natural history; C. K. Adams, Hart, Macy, and Woodrow Wilson of that on history; and Chamberlin, Davis, and Harrington of that on geography. Fortunately the reports of the special conferences are appended to the report of the committee of ten, and these in themselves are well worth the trouble and expense involved in their preparation.

Five main topics were considered by the several conferences, and the discussion of these was the main business of the committee of ten. These topics were, the proper limits of the several subjects of instruction in secondary schools, the best methods of instruction, the best methods of testing pupils' attainments, the most desirable allotment of time for each subject, and the requirements in it for admission to college. On four of these points the conferences are so unanimous in recommending what progressive teachers agree in considering wisest and best that the committee of ten find little to do beyond enumerating and enforcing their recommendations. The remaining point, however, that of time-allotment among the several subjects, is a more difficult one. It involves the very troublesome task of programme-making.

Yet even here the committee did not find that the conferences were unreasonable. Each group of specialists was naturally desirous of securing time for the proper study of its own subject, but on adding together the demands as to time made by the nine groups, the result is seen to be within the possibilities of a

large and well-equipped school, though far too much for any single pupil to attempt. Several programmes of study, not one alone, must therefore be made. The committee of ten provide in tabular form the material of which a thousand programmes may be made, and then give four sample programmes of their own. As these last represent the mature conclusions of the committee, reached after a prolonged study of the recommendations of the conferences, they will naturally attract a great deal of attention, and it is to them that the average principal of a secondary school will first turn. The four sample programmes are called, respectively, the classical, the Latin-scientific, the modern-language, and the English. The first makes provision for three foreign languages, one of which is modern. The second finds room for Latin and one modern language. The third embraces both French and German, but no ancient language; while the fourth provides for one foreign language, which may be either Latin, French, or German. No one of the programmes excludes the study of natural science, and the same is true as to history and geography. The time-allotment among the several subjects affords opportunity to win from each the kind of mental training it is fitted to supply. The different principal subjects are put on an approximately equal footing. All short information courses are omitted, and the instruction in each of the main lines—namely, language, science, history, and mathematics—is substantially continuous. These are all sound principles for the making of school programmes.

The committee are of opinion that under existing conditions in the United States as to the training of teachers and the provision of necessary means of instruction, the classical and Latin-scientific programmes must in practice be distinctly superior to the other two. In other words, we have not yet reduced the teaching of natural science and the modern languages to the same precision that is found in the case of the classics and mathematics; nor are competent teachers of the former subjects yet at hand in sufficient number to make it possible for the secondary schools to treat them on an equality with the latter.

On the subject of the relations between the colleges and the secondary schools, the committee speak with no uncertain sound. "It is obviously desirable," says the report, "that the colleges and scientific schools should be accessible to all boys or girls who have completed creditably the secondary course, . . . no matter to what group of subjects they may have mainly devoted themselves in the secondary school." It is, of course, recognized that, as secondary-school courses are now organized, with many feeble and scrappy

bits of instruction on a large variety of subjects, this is not a reasonable request to prefer to the colleges. But if the recommendations of the conferences and the committee were carried out, all the main subjects would take equal rank in the school. All would be taught consecutively and thoroughly. All would be used for training the powers and observation, memory, expression, and reasoning, though differing among themselves in quality and substance.

The latest published statistics show that there are in the United States more than 2,700 public high schools, with about 210,000 pupils. Of these, 25,000 are being prepared for college. There were at the same time more than 1,700 private secondary schools, with 98,000 pupils. Of these, 20,000 were being prepared for college. If the recommendations of the committee of ten be followed in spirit as well as in letter, both the 45,000 pupils who look forward to a college education and the 163,000 who expect to end their systematic study with the high school, will be given an immensely improved opportunity for sound training. The secondary schools will work in harmony, while retaining each its own individuality. And admission to college will be an incident in secondary-school work instead of the sole *terminus ad quem*.

THE FINANCIAL CRISIS IN GREECE.

ATHENS, December 20, 1893.

THIS small corner of Europe, which has played such an important and glorious part in the world's history, is laboring at present under the worst crisis that it has known since the recognition of its independence in 1830. Greece has run so heavily into debt that she can no longer meet her engagements. On December 15 the Greek Chamber of Deputies accepted the Government's proposal to pay a provisional instalment of 30 per cent. on the January coupon of the public debt, and to open negotiations with the bondholders with a view to a reduction of the capital of the debt; and yet, in 1867, the treasury balance of the Greek Finance Department closed with a surplus of 4,000,000 drachmas,* on a total revenue of 32,000,000.

What has created such a sad transition from abundance to bankruptcy? The answer is not easily put into a few words; Greek finance is a difficult problem even for professional financiers. The present situation is the result of many concurrent causes, which I shall merely attempt to outline. The sum total of the Greek public debt amounts to about 820,000,000 francs (\$164,000,000), including the floating debt. The annual interest and sinking fund required on this capital is 35,320,500 francs (\$7,000,000), more than five-sixths of which must be remitted abroad to foreign bondholders. As the total revenues of the state have just reached 100,000 dr. per annum, it is quite evident that the exportation of half of the same is a drain that a country like Greece cannot endure. The beginnings of the Greek public debt go back to

the war of Liberation, before the establishment of an independent state. In 1824 the provisional government raised a loan of \$4,000,000, which was entirely paid off three years ago; and in 1832 Greece borrowed 60,000,000 francs (afterward increased to 100,000,000, but reduced since then to 73,000,000). But up to 1861 no more loans were contracted. Between 1861 and 1871 the public debt was increased by 31,000,000 francs, and in 1871-1880 some 100,000,000 francs more were borrowed, thus bringing up the nominal total of the public debt to 250,000,000 francs. With the year 1881 begins a period of large loans, great internal development, and territorial extension. Thus, Greece borrowed 129,000,000 francs in 1881, 100,000,000 francs in 1884, 30,000,000 francs in 1885, 135,000,000 in 1887, 15,000,000 in 1888, some 155,000,000 in 1889, 60,000,000 in 1890-91, and 36,500,000 in 1892. Besides this there is a floating debt of 130,000,000 francs. This gives a grand total of 1,065,000,000 francs that Greece has borrowed since her political regeneration. Of this nominal capital (Greece has actually received only some \$25,000,000 francs in cash), about 245,000,000 francs have been already paid off, leaving the outstanding capital of the public debt, as I said above, at 820,000,000 francs, or a burden of 372.72 francs (\$74.54) per head of population.

The question naturally arises, How has all this money been spent? And in answering I shall not deal with the period prior to 1881, as that would carry me too far. Suffice it to say that a country which had been laid waste by a nine years' war, after four centuries of Asiatic oppression, was naturally destitute of everything that goes to make up civilization. Roads, harbors, public works, posts and telegraphs, national defence—all had to be created, as it were, out of nothing. If, therefore, the internal condition of Greece in 1877 was not all that could be desired, it was certainly all that could be expected for an outlay of 250,000,000 francs. Then came the war scare of 1877-1881, causing an increase of the public debt by some 140,000,000 and bringing about the forced circulation of bank-notes. However, the policy of those years had a happy issue in the acquisition of Thessaly, a fertile wheat-growing province of 13,000 square kilometres.

Since 1881 the public debt has been swelled by a nominal capital of 810,000,000 francs (including the floating debt), the actual yield of which was 595,000,000 francs. Of this latter sum, \$3,000,000 went to cover the 1877-1881 deficits, 170,000,000 to convert or consolidate older loans at a lower rate of interest, 67,000,000 to abolish the forced circulation, 60,000,000 as state subventions toward the construction of railways that are eventually to become state property; 26,000,000 for road-making; and 27,000,000 for three ironclads. The remainder, a sum of 156,000,000 francs, was employed solely in covering the deficits of the administrative years 1882-1892. In 1871 the annual interest and sinking-fund percentage on the debt amounted to 7,793,000 dr., most of which did not leave the country. Even as late as 1878 the annual amount paid out to foreign bondholders was only about 1,500,000 francs. But in 1883 it rose to 14,000,000 dr., and three years later to 22,000,000 dr., while to-day it has reached about 32,000,000 dr.

During the past eleven years, Mr. Tricoupi, the present prime minister, has been in power for an aggregate of eight years, and it has been his policy, by raising foreign loans in rapid succession, to attract foreign capital to Greece, to convert and consolidate older loans at a lower rate of interest, and to execute

needed public works. An excellent programme, no doubt, but it is evident to-day that it has been carried out with too much precipitation, burdening the country with heavy obligations ere it was sufficiently developed to meet them. Another detail of Mr. Tricoupi's policy was the payment of the interest on the public debt each time out of the proceeds of a new foreign loan, in order to avoid exporting gold from the country; meanwhile a proportionate amount in bank notes was placed to the credit of the public debt in Athens. Thus for several years no gold was exported for payments on coupons, and the country had a breathing spell. But this, too, has proved a dangerous, one may say disastrous, course for Greece, as it practically resulted in borrowing to pay ordinary expenses.

It must be said, in Mr. Tricoupi's justification, that his policy has twice been rudely interrupted and seriously put back by a change of administration, and by the creation of financial burdens which he was in no wise responsible for, and yet had to provide for upon returning to power. Thus, in 1882, he had to pay off \$3,000,000 francs of debts of his predecessors for the war troubles of 1877-1881. In December, 1884, he abolished the forced circulation of bank notes by paying back 67,000,000 francs to the National Bank; but shortly afterward he was hurled from power by the elections of 1885, and his successor, Mr. Delyannis, had hardly ruled the country two months before the revolt in Eastern Rumelia broke out, causing the Servo-Bulgarian war and the foolish armaments in Greece. This of course necessitated a loan, and as foreign capitalists would have nothing to do with him, Mr. Delyannis laid hands upon the gold reserve of the banks; thus the forced circulation was again revived, to the amount of 25,000,000 francs (since then raised to 90,000,000). Besides this, Mr. Delyannis contracted debts about 55,000,000 francs in all, which Mr. Tricoupi had to pay off, on returning to power in 1887. Thus the burden of forced circulation has been made a double one.

In spite of all these interruptions and obstacles, however, Mr. Tricoupi's policy has had sufficient trial to prove it to be not the one best adapted to the country's needs and resources. It has already been mentioned that 170,000,000 francs were employed in converting or consolidating older loans, and it is true that an annual economy of 6,000,000 francs has thereby been effected in the interest on the loans converted. But unfortunately many of these represented native capital and have all been converted into foreign loans; and thus the interest, being now paid out of the country, is a direct drain upon the country's gold reserve. Public works and railways since 1881 have cost Greece about 100,000,000 francs. This is an item no one can reasonably take exception to, nor is it this that has ruined Greece. On the contrary, travel is now much easier, and its great increase is a distinct source of revenue. Far heavier is the item of war-like preparations during the war scares of 1877 and 1885, representing a total of 270,000,000 francs. Unfortunately for her finances, Greece has several millions of Greeks under Turkish rule to think of; this is the inheritance forced upon the Greeks by the London Convention of 1830, which refused to grant independence to more than one-fourth of the Greek lands that had fought nine long years for their freedom. Free Greece cannot, therefore, be indifferent to the fate of the Greeks in Turkey, nor cease to regard their present condition as transient; and it is ever the professed aim of Greek statesmen to build up resources which

*The Greek drachma at par is equivalent to the French franc. At present, owing to the forced circulation of paper currency, the exchange on gold is quite high—65 per cent. above par. It has not been below 20 per cent. for several years, and recently was as high as 88 per cent. In this letter *dr.* stands for paper drachmas, *fr.* for francs or drachmas in gold.

shall enable Greece, at a happy juncture, to strike an effective blow for their liberation. But this naturally entails patient and systematic work, such as unfortunately has never yet been understood in Greece; and the only efforts made have been hasty armaments upon sudden excitement, which have resulted in nothing else than an increase of the public burdens. An exception must be made in favor of the three ironclads built in 1890, whereby the permanent strength of the Greek navy has been raised to a very respectable degree.

There is another item in the public debt since 1881, which, though not the largest, is yet the most discouraging. As already stated, 150,000,000 fr. effective (equivalent to a nominal capital of about 220,000,000 fr.) has been used to cover the deficits of the administrative years 1882-1892. Since 1882 only the year 1887 shows a balance of revenue and expenditure. In fact, the curse of annual deficits dates back to 1871; the budget of 1861 balanced at 25,000,000 dr., and that of 1867 shows a surplus of 4,000,000. Since 1882 the arrears of revenue have run up to a total of 75,000,000 dr. Here we have it, then, in a nutshell—Greece has become bankrupt within fifteen years, first, through injudicious borrowing and conversions, secondly, through heavy expenditure, caused by two war-scares, thirdly, through laxity of administration. The first two evils may be attributed to errors of judgment, partly justified by legitimate considerations. Greece needed railways and public works, and it seemed best to borrow 100,000,000 fr. for this purpose. It seemed very advantageous, too, to convert 5 or 6 per cents into 4½ per cents. It seemed to be the duty of the Greek Government to stand by the Greeks in Turkey; and no friend of liberty can condemn the Panhellenic "idea"—it is the foolish methods adopted in furthering that idea that must be condemned. But the charge of laxity in the administration, extending over a long period of years, cannot be palliated by any such considerations. No country can hope to have the respect and confidence of the world until it learns to live within its income, and the present misfortunes of Greece are due chiefly to the fact that her statesmen, with all their intelligence, have committed the unpardonable error of imagining that two and two could ever make more than four.

Two causes may be assigned for this unfortunate administration. First is the defective system of taxation, which is most iniquitous in Greece and weakens the country more and more every year. Instead of a land tax (in the absence of a proper survey), there is a heavy tax on ploughing-animals that greatly depresses agriculture. The tax on wine is levied at the grape-press, no matter whether the grape-juice, after several months, turns out good wine or not; thus the wine trade is kept in a state of sickly infancy. The duties on petroleum, sugar, coffee, and imported cereals are oppressively high for such articles of prime necessity. The tax on tobacco is levied in a very wasteful manner. These are only a few of the more glaring defects of the present system.

The second and most potent cause of maladministration is—*parliamentarism*. The utter dependence of the Cabinet upon the good-will of the majority in the Chamber of Deputies (there is no Senate) entails unlimited interference of the legislature in the details of administration. A deputy of the Government party can secure anything fair or foul, from a snug little public office for a constituent (regardless of the latter's fitness for it) to the par-

don of a convicted murderer. Even the army and navy have been invaded by this pestilential meddling, to the utter confusion of all discipline and *esprit de corps*. And the finances have been thoroughly demoralized, on the one hand by the exemption of Government protégés from taxation, on the other by wasteful expenditure for party interests. Greece was given a full-rigged parliamentary form of government without having undergone any preparatory political training, and this régime, like a razor in the hands of a child, has not failed to produce disastrous results.

The reduction of the debt will entail great direct loss to the Greeks themselves, for many millions of Greek bonds are owned by Greeks and Greek institutions throughout the East. It is therefore unfair to impute any underhand motives to this proposal of the Greek Government, and no doubt the approaching negotiations with the bondholders will be carried on in a spirit of equity and sincerity. It lies in the creditors' interest to ask no more than the country can pay without crippling its productive resources. Let us hope their present plight will teach the Greeks a salutary lesson. Equilibrium of the budget must hereafter be the cornerstone of their financial policy, at all costs. The burdens of the public revenue must be more equitably distributed and impartially collected, and serious effort be made to encourage native industry and agriculture. Greece is by no means an exhausted land, in spite of her checkered career in the past. She could easily produce enough grain for home consumption; while her olives, oil, wine, currants, figs, and tobacco could, with proper enterprise, bring in dozens of millions of francs more a year than they do at present. The silk trade could be made a mine of gold. The country further abounds in beautiful stone and marble of every variety and color, and is rich in minerals and metallic springs. In fact, even a superficial observer sees unworked sources of wealth in every direction, which need only capital and enterprise to enrich both the individual and the country at large. D. K.

THE ROYAL ACADEMY'S WINTER EXHIBITION.

LONDON, December 30, 1893.

AT the Royal Academy's winter show, interest does not always centre about the old men. Sometimes the more recent of the "deceased masters of the British School," as they are called in the catalogue, give the collection its chief importance, and, this, fortunately, is the case in the exhibition just opened. I say fortunately, since if it is not possible to include a series as fine as the Velasquez masterpieces of some four winters ago, or the incomparable Rembrandts and Halses, Titians and Veroneses, which have often dwarfed all the canvases hung with them, in the absence of pictures of supreme value one turns gladly to examples of British painters whose names are excellently well known, but whose work can be seen only on rare occasions. It may disappoint, but there are times when even disappointment has its good uses.

In the present show there is scarce a master, Italian, Dutch, or Flemish (there are no Spaniards to be considered), who cannot be studied to better advantage in the National Gallery. The Primitives (Titian and Veronese, Van Dyck and Rubens, Hals and Rembrandt) are but indifferently represented. Indeed, in their respective sections there is little of special note, save canvases that compel attention

because either the name of the painter, or else the subject chosen by a well-known man, has in it something in the nature of a surprise, something unfamiliar. Thus, in the gallery devoted to the Primitives, though there are *Virgins* by Bellini and Botticelli, by Mabuse and Van Eyck, the one painting which, owing to its rich color scheme and vigorous presentation of strong faces, stands out with distinction, is a portrait of the first Duke of Urbino by Melozzo da Forli, surely a master who seldom proves so conspicuous. In another gallery, though surrounded by Bordones and Veroneses and Bonifazio, it is a "Flute-Player," by the little-known Savoldo, which charms by the austere dignity in the arrangement, the character in the face and pose of the youth who figures as a musician. Again, in a third room, the eye is arrested by a garden scene—a beautiful old garden, with clipped trees, prim flower-beds, and a flying cupid in stone—attributed to De Hooge; a rare contrast, truly, to the interiors which supplied him with his usual motive. I do not mean to say that there are no other good canvases; not many can be passed with entire indifference. But, as a rule, few are notable examples of the masters in question.

And so it is with the pictures of the most distinguished British painters—the portraits by Sir Joshua, Gainsborough, and Romney, the landscapes by Constable, Turner, and Cotman. These are men who, whatever their faults at times, never can be reproached as commonplace or mediocre in their work. But they have been seen before at the Academy—can be seen now elsewhere—in far greater perfection; all, except perhaps Cotman, who certainly never produced anything lovelier or more impressive than a little "Landscape" (it has no other title to identify it) which is classical almost as a Claude in its serenity of composition and dignity of line, "romantic" almost as a Corot or a Rousseau in its beauty and originality of color. It is extraordinary that, with Constable and Cotman to show the right way, the English landscape-painter should so quickly have fallen into an abyss of dulness and vulgarity.

In the British department, however, it is Stothard, a man of very different style and methods, who has been given chief prominence. Many of his paintings and drawings have been brought together to form, as it were, a separate show by themselves. As an illustrator Stothard was most popular during his lifetime, and has been best remembered since his death. Even in these days of innumerable magazines and illustrated daily papers, few black-and-white men produce drawings with such astounding facility and in such incredible numbers; even in our age of cheap and nasty reproduction, few are so careless of their reputation as he often seemed. He would illustrate any and everything, from Rogers's Poems to ordinary fashion journals. Book after book came out, decorated—or otherwise—by his drawings; now, it was 'Clarissa Harlowe' or the 'Spectator,' and now the 'Pilgrim's Progress' or Shakspeare. The Bible and the *Novelist's Magazine* he undertook with equal readiness. Stothard, for a time, was very poor, and, by way of increasing his expenses, married early. For a while he had to live by hook or by crook; afterwards the habit of doing whatever fell in his way was not easily to be shaken off. Sometimes he made those charming, graceful little drawings, done either for the steel-engraver or else the wood-engravers trained by Bewick, which are really his masterpieces; sometimes he turned out the veriest hack work,

which it is kinder to forget. But, probably, even when producing his best drawings, he looked upon painting as the serious business of his life, and this winter, for the first time in many years, an opportunity presents itself to study him as a painter. The study results, it must be confessed, in some slight disappointment. After looking at the fifty or more of his canvases, it is realized that he was a man of no marked originality, though he had genuine artistic instinct and was intelligent in his appreciation of the art of Italy, Flanders, and France. He was a careful student, with a talent for imitation. Evidently, Rubens, the Venetians, Raphael, Watteau were by turns his masters. With such sympathy could he copy Titian or Veronese in the blue of the sky or the richness of the foliage that serves as background for many of his nymphs, that one would be inclined to rank him very high as a colorist were it not for those other canvases in which, foolishly, he allowed his own undistinguished individuality full play. Here his color is as crude and glaring as, in his frank imitations of the great Venetians or Flemings, it is rich and glowing. In his pretty pastorals he could paint you a landscape so beautiful in its fine conventions, with so graceful a group of dancers in the foreground, that Watteau might have envied him the cunning of his brush; and yet he could stoop to trivial sentiment and feeble story-telling worthier of the modern Academician or member of the Institute. Now, as in "The Canterbury Pilgrims," the most famous of his pictures, he could design a decoration, striking enough in arrangement to atone for hardness and spottiness of color; but again, as in that unspeakable "Children of Tippoo Sahib given up to Lord Cornwallis," the baldness of his realism, when he attempted to paint the Eastern beauties whom he never saw, becomes absolutely comic. So long as he remained faithful to the painters whom, for the time, he accepted as his masters, his work had merit of no mean order; when once he endeavored to depend upon himself, his work sank hopelessly to the commonplace. Had he been less catholic in his tastes, had he continued constant ever to Raphael or to Watteau, to Rubens or to the Venetians, it matters not whom, he might eventually have developed a style of his own. But the many masters were his undoing. His pictures, as a rule, are but imitations. For a personal note in his work, for an expression of his own artistic temperament, one looks in vain. His great virtue was his intelligence as a student—a virtue that need not, however, be valued lightly.

The same exhibition contains two Etty's, as if to prove that hard study and considerable industry alone will not make the artist. Etty, like Stothard, from whom indeed he may have derived his first incentive, went to Venice and Flanders for inspiration. He was always a conscientious student; so much so that his regular attendance at the life school, even after he had been made a member of the Academy, was resented by his fellow-academicians, who feared thereby a loss of dignity for the whole institution. And few painters have been more industrious, Etty having no life or interest outside of his studio in the old house near Charing Cross, that overlooked the river. But he lacked, in a measure, the intelligence of Stothard; the latter could produce a worthy imitation, but Etty, as one sees in the "Pluto and Proserpine" and the "Sleeping Nymph and Satyrs," was less successful, though far more ambitious. He painted flesh all his life, and yet his women have none of the voluptuous or refined beauty of the nudes by Titian

and Rubens, but are mere shapeless bags of fat, their demure Victorian coiffure giving the prurient touch to which Etty would have been the first to object, could he have seen his work with the eyes of the present generation. Still, in the "Nymph" there are certain qualities—a genuine feeling for decoration and color, and a vigor in the drawing of the Satyrs—that show Etty to have been almost a great painter, an artist who just did not come off.

Fred Walker is another of the "deceased British masters" one is glad to study at first hand. He enjoys a great reputation, since many men who looked up to him as their leader are still living to sing his praise. But he was greater in intention than in accomplishment. There is no denying the beauty and glory of his own impression of a sunset which he sought to record in "The Plough," the picture most often cited in testimony of his powers; but the canvas only suggests what he wanted to do; it gives a mass of pink paint, and not the glowing roseate light of the sunset falling on cliffside and on the great clouds towering above; while, in the stilted, affected, exaggerated pose of the ploughman, one sees the beginning of much of the maudlin sentiment that now prevails among English painters. By the same trick his "Wayfarers" challenges sympathy, and so leaves one cold and indifferent. It was by simple means, by the absence of such meretricious bids for emotion, that Millet's sowers and gleaners triumphed. It may be that Fred Walker's shortcomings are the more obvious because of the undoubted talent he displayed even in his failures. Had he lived to finish his life's work, there is small doubt that he would have established on a firmer basis his reputation, which, the chances are, will grow less as time goes on. But between him and a man like the late Mr. Pettie, whose productions are now honored in a room apart, there is a wide gulf, and the contrast emphasizes the good points in Fred Walker's work. For Pettie not only failed in achievement, his standard was low, his aims trivial. Academicians would have shown greater tenderness for his memory had they not collected and hung again so many proofs of his feebleness as painter.

Still another room has been reserved for Blake's illustrations to the Book of Job. But of these so much has been said, so many times, that it would be useless to add more than a word to the mass of literature and criticism on the subject. Again one is struck with the grandeur and impressiveness of his conceptions, the naïveté of his execution, and the grotesque excesses to which his undisciplined imagination could lead him.

N. N.

Correspondence.

INDUSTRIAL DEPRESSION AND COLLEGE ATTENDANCE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The impression has taken root in the minds of many people that higher education is so essentially a luxury that it may be classed with jewels, paintings, and wines; in other words, that upon the advent of hard times the first cut in expenses is made by setting the boys at work instead of sending them to college. That this is not a true statement of fact has been my conviction for some time, and I am pleased to observe that Prof. James of the University of Pennsylvania has taken exception to it in the *Educational Review* for November. His theory, in common with that of Prof. Amringe of Columbia College and

Prof. Conrad of Halle, is that times of industrial depression tend to increase, rather than to diminish, the attendance at the higher institutions of learning. And this theory is remarkably borne out by the figures given in the recent report of President Francis A. Walker of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology. I am, therefore, tempted to submit an analysis of it to your readers in the hope of evoking criticism, if not justification, for the interpretation I would put upon the figures as they appear.

There is at present a total of 1,158 students whose names are on the rolls, making an increase of 98 above the number last year. It is conceivable that a panic might affect the attendance in either one of two ways: it might diminish the size of the entering class; or, secondly, it might induce men to continue their studies for another year rather than to risk an enforced idleness if they sought employment in hard times. As might have been expected, this latter course has been generally adopted. There is an increase of 83 in the number of students remaining over from last year; so that in so far as the attendance is concerned, the panic has had a beneficial influence. Does this mean, then, that so large a number of students of this institution have been unable to secure employment upon graduation? By no means, for a further analysis of the figures shows that only 11 are graduates of the Institute.

This increase in the number of students might have been neutralized in large part had there been a marked decrease in the number of students registering for the first time. But here again there is an increase of 15 over last year's registration. Combining both entering and continuing students, we perceive an increase of 98, which is exactly double the increase of last year. It surely does not appear, therefore, that the crisis of 1893 has resulted in marked economies in the line of higher technical education.

The next point will be to show that, while gains may be expected, especially in the larger institutions, they will be most likely to occur in the purely professional or technical schools, which prepare men to enter at once upon a self-supporting existence. That the comparisons may be unaffected by local circumstances, it will be best to confine our observations to those technical schools which form part of the great universities, and to compare the growth in them with the coincident development of the academic departments. At Harvard, for instance, nearly one-half of the total gain in attendance is found in the Lawrence Scientific School, which contains less than one-tenth of the whole number of students in the university. Out of a total of 1,656 students in the academic department the increase is but 58, or about 4 per cent.; the number attending the technical school is increased by 98, although there were only 181 students on its rolls a year ago, showing an increase of 54 per cent. The most marked feature, however, is the great increase of special students in these technical courses as compared with the number in the academic department. In other words, it appears that while the size of the first-year class in both academic and technical departments is about the same as in 1892-93, there has been an increase of 70 per cent. in the number of special students in the Scientific School as compared with an increase of 9 per cent. in the college proper. Are we not justified in assuming that this represents a number of men who are biding their time by taking professional courses, and who will enter active life on the outbreak of prosperity?

The figures presented for the School of Mines of Columbia College are somewhat peculiar. In the undergraduate courses there is a normal increase of 10 per cent.; taking the school as a whole there is a lessened increment for the current year, the rate of increase being cut down from 10 per cent. in 1892-3 to 4 per cent. for the present year. This is due to a decrease in the number of graduate and special students. At all events the effects of the current depression are much less marked than in the academic department of the college, which suffers an absolute decrease of 9 per cent. But if we turn to the departments which attract special students, we see one reason for this apparently unfavorable showing, I believe, for in those courses which are most likely to attract graduate students and those holding over, we observe a great increase. The School of Political Science has an augmented attendance of 32 per cent., while the Schools of Philosophy and Political Science combined show a growth of upwards of 26 per cent. There is normally a very rapid growth; but are we not also justified in assuming that some of these men are waiting for prosperous times? In this way we are able to account for the great increases in these semi-technical courses; and our thesis seems to be amply upheld by the returns.

In Yale University, the increase of the academic department for 1891-2 was 78 on a total of 888, or about 8.8 per cent.; for this year it was 120 on a total of 936, or about 12 per cent. This certainly corroborates our theory that hard times do not necessarily endanger the cause of higher education. The peculiar significance for us lies in a comparison of these figures for the academic department with those of the technological courses. The increase in the Sheffield Scientific School was 68 on a total of 461 in 1892-3, or about 14 per cent.; in this year of depression it was 72 on a total of 529, or 14 per cent. again. There is no abnormal gain, but a constant percentage of augmentation on an increased base implies no retardation of growth at least.

The figures of the total attendance at Cornell University show an increase over last year of 5 per cent. This is somewhat below the average, which has ranged about 10 per cent. during the last few years. The entering class seems to be augmented by about 5 per cent.; the figures for the graduate departments show a very large increase, namely, 43 per cent. The average yearly increment, excluding Fellows, in these graduate courses for the last five years has apparently been about 25 per cent. If we are justified in the assumption that Cornell draws a smaller proportion of her students from the large cities than either Yale or Columbia, the inference would apparently be unfavorable to Prof. James's theory that the country boy will find less difficulty in being absorbed into active life than his confrère from the city during a time of industrial depression, for the increase in the number of graduate students is more marked here than in either of the two "city-student" colleges. I feel, however, that it would be unsafe to generalize further from such inadequate data.

Another factor which would weaken the force of comparisons in this direction is the fact that women form so large a part of the student body at Cornell. I believe that the increase in attendance will be found in general to be more affected among women than among the men, although space forbids any further consideration of the matter in this place. I shall content myself with mentioning the fact that the treasurers of two College-Women's

Aid Societies have noted a marked falling-off in the demand for assistance this year. They ascribe it to the fact that parents have withdrawn their support absolutely in many cases, and that consequently fewer women are tempted to run the risk of the experiment. The communication from Vassar College in the *Educational Review* tends also to give color to this view.

One word in conclusion as to the geographical distribution of the gains and losses, as shown in attendance at the Institute of Technology. The steady increase in the number of students characterized by the last ten years has continued in the New England, Middle, and Central States as a whole. The States which show a marked decrease in the number of students at the Institute are mainly in the South and West, or, as one might expect, in Alabama, Arkansas, Colorado, Washington, etc., although New Jersey, Michigan, and Minnesota appear to be affected somewhat. Among the latter we can readily find an explanation in the growth of technical schools within their borders which would account for the decrease. The other losses are almost exclusively found in those regions where bank suspensions have been most frequent and the intensity of the depression has been most keen. It may be of interest to state that I have since discovered a very close correspondence between these figures and those which have been kindly furnished from the proof-sheets for the catalogue of Cornell University.

A point of some interest in this discussion is the opportunity afforded in technical training for utilizing the vacations in remunerative employment. Inquiries among the third and fourth-year students in our civil and sanitary-engineering courses have shown a very favorable condition of affairs. Out of a class of twenty-nine seniors in these departments twenty-one devoted the summer months of 1893 to practical work, at an average pay of \$55 per month. Among thirty-one third-year students 61 per cent. obtained work, despite the depression in business, at an average wage of \$51 a month. In view of the fact that a considerable portion of these classes did not even seek work, preferring to rest during the vacation, the success obtained is remarkable. When undergraduates can earn their tuition fees so easily, it is not strange that hard times should have so little effect upon the number of those who seek the professional training.

WILLIAM Z. RIPLEY.

MASSACHUSETTS INSTITUTE OF TECHNOLOGY,
BOSTON, MASS., January 4, 1894.

AN AMERICANISM.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The following notes on the word "co-education" will perhaps be of general interest:

(1.) It does not appear in the 'Century Dictionary.'

(2.) It is given by the 'International Dictionary' without comment or citation, and defined as "an educating together, as of persons of different sexes or races."

(3.) It appears in the new 'Standard Dictionary' as a term used in the United States. The two meanings which are put together in the definition of the 'International Dictionary' are here given separately. For the meaning "education of the sexes together" there is a citation from Bryce's 'American Commonwealth' dated 1889. Of the other meaning no example is given.

(4.) The article in Murray's 'New English Dictionary' reads as follows:

"Co-education (of U. S. origin). Education of the two sexes together in school or college. 1874. E. H. Clarke, *Sex in Educ.* 123. In these pages, co-education of the sexes is used in its common acceptation of identical co-education. 1874. S. [sic] W. Higginson, *ibid.*, 37. Any physiologist opposed to co-education."

It will be noticed that, of the two meanings given by the 'International' and the 'Standard,' but one is recognized by Murray.

(5.) Although the earliest date given in Murray's Dictionary is 1874, the word was in use many years previously to that time. The oldest document that I know of in which the word occurs bears date of December 28, 1857. It is a circular letter of inquiry sent out from Lansing, Mich., to the Union Schools of the State by Dr. Ira Mayhew, who was then superintendent of public instruction. In this circular the word "co-education" occurs but once, as follows:

"Question 10. Do advantages or disadvantages result, in your experience, from the co-education of the sexes?"

Regarding his use of the word at that time, Dr. Mayhew writes:

"In some sixteen Union Schools replying to the circular above referred to, all but four reported in favor of co-education. These four made no reference to it. All of these reports used the word as now employed. It was so used by myself and others in reports, addresses, and discussions on the subject. . . . I cannot now say whether the term originated with me."

But I find no trace of these "reports, addresses, and discussions" in which the word was employed. Dr. Mayhew did not use it in any other of his official writings of that time.

(6.) I have discovered no other instance of the use of the word before 1870. It does not appear in the places in which one would naturally expect to find it—in the speeches and reports of Edward Everett, for example, in the writings and addresses of Horace Mann (as many of them as I have consulted), or in the papers on the "education of females" published in the *American Journal of Education* and the *American Institute of Instruction*. In 1859 it was unknown even to Dr. Murray's "S. W. Higginson"; at any rate it does not appear in Col. Higginson's article, "Ought Women to Learn the Alphabet?" which came out in the *Atlantic Monthly* in that year.

(7.) In 1870 the word, contemporaneously (or nearly so) with the thing, appeared at the University of Michigan. It may be found in the *University Chronicle* of January 15, 1870. From that time on, instances in papers and magazines are numerous. An example of its use occurs in the *Nation* for March, 1870.

(8.) At Oberlin, where college co-education is said to have begun, the term was not used, I believe, until it had come into general use elsewhere. President Fairchild, in his 'Oberlin, the Colony and the College,' published in 1883, remarks that the word "co-education" "seems to have come into use in the last twenty years"; but it is not to be found in any of the college documents prior to 1870 that I have been able to consult. "Joint education" is used instead.

(9.) The slang term "co-ed," meaning 'woman student in a co-educational institution,' made its first appearance in print, so far as my knowledge goes, at this university in the History of the class of '78, published in the *University Chronicle* of June 15, 1878.

It would be interesting to learn on what

grounds the word "co-education" was excluded from the 'Century Dictionary.'

FRED N. SCOTT.
UNIVERSITY OF MICHIGAN, January 4, 1894.

Notes.

WE are glad to learn that Mr. James Schouler has decided to extend his 'History of the United States under the Constitution' by one more volume, the sixth, embracing the civil war and Lincoln's administration.

S. C. Griggs & Co., Chicago, issue next month 'The Union Pacific Railway: A Study in Railway Politics, History, and Economics,' by John P. Davis, A.M. (Mich.).

A combination of Lewis Carroll's 'Sylvie and Bruno' and Diana Clifford Kimber's text-book on 'Anatomy and Physiology for Nurses,' will speedily be published by Macmillan & Co., who have also nearly ready 'The King of Schnorrers: Grotesques and Fantasies,' by Isaac Zangwill, with numerous illustrations.

The publication of a cook-book by subscription is new to us, but Delmonico's veteran chef, Mr. Charles Ranhofer, will essay it, at his own risk, promising an octavo volume of 1,200 pages, embracing 3,700 recipes, and embellished with 800 engravings.

'Great Educational Exhibits,' sketches from the Liberal Arts collection at Chicago, is announced by Wm. Geo. Bruce, Milwaukee.

Mr. W. J. Harvey has undertaken the enormous labor of transcribing the Cambridge (Eng.) records of university alumni for the four centuries 1483-1893 in twenty-one volumes, including an index volume, one for each of fifteen colleges, three for Trinity, and two for St. John's. The work will be entitled 'Alumni Cantabrigienses,' and will record admissions, matriculations, and graduations, giving Christian name and surname, particulars as to parentage, birth, education, college, rank, age at admission, tutors, degrees, dignities, etc., etc.—say 150,000 separate entries. Each college record will be purchasable by itself at a guinea a volume. Mr. Harvey's address is Heathell, Melbourne Grove, Champion Hill, London, S. E.

Publication has been begun in Germany of Dr. Muret's 'Encyklopädisches Wörterbuch der Englischen und Deutschen Sprache,' based on the 'Century Dictionary,' and not neglecting Dr. Murray's so far as it is at present available (Berlin: Langenscheidt: New York: Christer).

The second volume of Hooker and Jackson's 'Index Kewensis' (Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan), extends from *Dendrobium* to *Justicia*. Among the genera which occupy many columns are *Eupatorium*, *Erica*, *Euphorbia* and *Hieracium*, the latter filling no less than thirty-five columns, chiefly through the great multiplication of synonyms. Of the Linnaean genus *Halesia* there are given five species, so that those botanists who would replace this name with something of their own coinage, have an opportunity of adding a few more useless synonyms to a list which is already far too long.

The popular little 'Ariel Shakspere' devised by G. P. Putnam's Sons, shapely for the pocket and clear of print, each with its outline vignette from a series of designs sixty years old, receives just now an addition of seven volumes, viz., "Julius Cesar," "Antony and Cleopatra," "Hamlet," "Macbeth," "Othello," "King Lear," and "Romeo and Juliet." This

constitutes the third group, and two remain; but each play is to be had separately. The same publishers have added to their "Knick-erbocker Nuggets" 'Essays Selected from the Spirit of the Age, or Contemporary Portraits, by William Hazlitt.' Hazlitt's judgment of Crabbe may here curiously be real in contrast with Edward FitzGerald's admiration of this poet.

'Kenilworth' makes two volumes of the International Limited Edition of the Waverley Novels (Bryan, Taylor & Co.), and 'Peveril of the Peak' one in the Dryburgh Edition (Macmillan). The etchings and designs for the former are furnished by Ad. Lalauze, the drawings on wood for the latter by Stanley Berkeley; and not much can be said for either series.

The first volume of "an illustrated and popular story" of 'The World's Parliament of Religions' has appeared (Chicago: Parliament Publishing Co.). It is a stout octavo of 800 pages in small type. The editor, the Rev. John Henry Barrows, D.D., admits that greater condensation might have been employed, and promises to sift more rigorously the material for the next volume. There is a great variety of portrait illustrations; and other pictures are of scenes, priests, temples, etc., mainly Oriental. The frontispiece shows the delegates assembled on the platform of the Chicago Art Institute.

Volume vii. of the Transactions of the Royal Historical Society (1893) contains several interesting papers. More than half the volume is devoted to part ii. of "The Inquisition of 1517," edited by I. S. Leadham. This part gives an account of the enclosures and evictions which took place in Norfolk, Yorkshire, Herefordshire, Staffordshire, and Hampshire. In his preface Mr. Leadham breaks a lance with Prof. Ashley on the subject of the legal security of copyholders or customary tenants. The volume also contains a translation of Prof. Pflugk-Hartung's "Druids of Ireland," a brief history of "The Magyar County," "Notes on the Family of Betoun," "The Laws of the Mercers Company of Lichfield," and Dr. F. Liebermann's "Instituta Cnuti." The title "Instituta Cnuti" is here applied to a private compilation written presumably in 1110. It contains a Latin translation of Cnut's laws and of various other legal enactments of which no Anglo-Saxon original is now in existence. Dr. Liebermann carefully analyzes the treatise and, with his usual critical acumen, throws much new light on its origin and contents. We understand that he will print the first instalment of his edition of the Anglo-Saxon laws next year. He has devoted several years of laborious research to this edition, and it promises to be an epoch-making work.

The fifty-seventh bound volume of the *Commercial and Financial Chronicle*, comprising the weekly issues of this journal from July 1, 1893, to the year's close, has reached our table. The *Chronicle's* merits as a standard authority on financial events, market quotations, and monetary statistics generally, have long since received their proper recognition. The period covered by the volume just issued possesses extraordinary interest, and the record of it comprised in the *Chronicle* is for fulness and accuracy quite unrivaled.

A year ago we gave our readers some account of R. Waliszewski's 'The Romance of an Empress' (Catherine II. of Russia). This readable work now comes to us in an English translation from D. Appleton & Co. The English is fairly fluent; the transliteration of Russian proper names exhibits a queer mixture of English and French phonetics—*Chicherbatof*,

Zoubof, *Nikitichka*, *Bestoujet*, with inconsistencies like *Goudowitch*, *Mirocitch*, *Galitzine*, *Roumiantsof*.

Under the title of 'À travers le Japon' the office of the French Minister of Agriculture has printed, on Japanese paper, five hundred copies of an octavo of 172 pages relating to the forests and forest-productions of Japan (Paris: J. Rothschild). It is interesting to know that a large portion of that Eastern empire is under the management of a well-organized forest administration, and that in the year 1882 a college of agriculture and forestry was established near Tokio, where there are now three hundred students, nearly half of whom are in training for office in the forestry departments. The course of study covers five years; three and a half are spent at the college, and the rest of the time is devoted to practical work in the field and forest. An interesting chapter of the book is that which relates to the *ourouchi*, the varnish-tree of Japan (*Rhus vernicifera*). The tree is figured, apparently by Japanese artists, its cultivation treated of, and the peculiar mode of collecting the varnish well described. The average yearly rainfall of Japan is stated to be 1430 mm. (56.3 in.), much more than in our Atlantic States, and with the peculiarity that two-thirds of it falls during the warm season, when the forests have the most need of moisture. Japan is naturally a land of forests, having nearly as great a variety of trees as Eastern North America, and nearly twice as great a variety as Europe. When will our nation learn to have the same care for our forests that is seen even among these people whom we consider far less civilized than ourselves?

The Transactions of the Asiatic Society of Japan form a literary storehouse of unique value. The papers are by special students, almost all of whom reside in Japan. Though in some instances too technical to be of general interest, they are usually popular and enjoyable. Vol. xxi., besides the revised constitution and reports of meetings from June, 1892, to October, 1893 (pp. 36), contains 289 pages of matter of unusual interest. Mr. C. Meriwether contributes a Life of Date Masamune, the northern daimio who, in 1613, despatched an embassy to Europe which travelled via Mexico. Much new matter from European and Japanese sources is here sifted. Like the normal inhabitant of Japan, "Masamune valued the secondary benefits of Christianity at a higher price than its primary." "Esoteric Shinto" is treated of by Percival Lowell in that writer's brilliant style. The phenomena of god-possession, the miracle of walking on fire, and the details of life in the pilgrim clubs are described with more rhetoric and punning than is usual in the serious journal of a learned society. Mr. E. H. Parker, the eminent sinologue, gives proofs that Burmese, Japanese, Korean, and Chinese have come from one common stock. In "Ainu Economic Plants" we have the vegetable dietary and pharmacopeia of the wild savages of Yezo. No more thoroughly informing article on the Loo Chooans has ever been written than the paper by Professor (and President) Basil Hall Chamberlain, who handsomely supplements the work of his grandfather, the British captain of H. B. M. S. *Lyre* in 1816.

One of the important art works of the current year will undoubtedly be the two large volumes by Prof. Giuseppe Merzario, entitled 'I Maestri comacini; Storia artistica di mille duecento anni (600-1800).' Hardly a city or town in Tuscany but carries in some part of its historic buildings the characteristic stamp

of these anonymous workers-in-stone of Como; the great cathedrals of Milan, of Como, of Pavia, of Pisa, even of Rome show their presence. They realize the Middle Ages for the south no less distinctly, if more locally, than the Gothic masters do for the north. With the Renaissance their characteristic qualities, the hieratical nature of their constructions, pass away; they live on and work on, but as individuals, no longer as exponents of their gild notion.

Edoardo Perino of Rome has published a new "Biblioteca Diamante," which stopped at number 100. The print and paper are fair, each little volume containing about 130 pages, and selling for 20 cent. Besides the more famous classics, this series contains a number of works scarcely accessible in modern reprints. The "Fioretti di S. Francesco" in this edition is the prettiest reprint that exists of this matchless anthology of anecdotes and fables. The story-tellers from the Novellino down to Firenzuola, including Sermini and Pius II. (in old translation), are well represented. Boccaccio's "Ninfale Fiesolano," L. B. Alberti's "Amore," the almost contemporary life of Rienzi, Bibboni's account of his murder of Lorenzino de' Medici, and the latter's defence of his assassinating Alessandro, Campanella's "Città del Sole," L. Dolce's "Della Pittura," Buonaparte's "Sacco di Roma"—texts of the utmost importance to the student of Italian civilization—are all reprinted in this "Biblioteca."

Braun & Cie. of Paris and Dornach have just published in perfect facsimile the splendid series of heads at Weimar that go under the name of Leonardo da Vinci. These drawings are not by Leonardo, but are excellent contemporary copies of the apostles' heads in the "Last Supper," and, considering the state the original is in, the drawings are indispensable for an understanding of Leonardo and his masterpiece.

The Johns Hopkins imprint always inspires a certain amount of respect, but we fail to find it confirmed in Scaife's "Florentine Life during the Renaissance." This is a somewhat chatty and desultory aggregation of material concerning Florence during the later portion of the Middle Ages. The author does not seem to be particularly select as to his authorities. Roscoe appears to be cited more frequently than Villari or Perrens, and the "Biographie Universelle" and "Encyclopædia Britannica" figure among the references. The phrase (p. 64) "which valued the fraction of one cent," is a somewhat unexpected resurrection of an obsolete expression.

M. Henri Gaidoz's plausible attempt in *Mélusine* to derive the Virgin of the Seven Swords from the Assyrian war-goddess Istar did not quite meet the approval of the Belgian Jesuit fathers who edit (not uncritically) the *Analecta Bollandiana*. They deny the Italian origin of the worship and the symbolism of this Virgin (which M. Gaidoz was far from inventing), and claim it for Belgium and a comparatively recent date. M. Gaidoz defends himself with much humor and erudition in *Mélusine* for November-December, 1893 (Paris: E. Rolland), and brings to the interesting discussion a number of fresh engravings, ancient and modern, including the Chartres cameo of Jupiter, taken for St. John on account of the eagle, and Charles V.'s cameo of Athena and Poseidon, taken for Adam and Eve.

In our recent account of the New York meeting of the American Psychological Association we virtually gave the contents of No. 1 of the new *Psychological Review*, edited by

Profs. J. McKeen Cattell of Columbia and J. Mark Baldwin of Princeton. We must now mention the address of the President, Prof. Ladd, and the book reviews and notes. There is one illustration, representing the contrivance by which Prof. Münsterberg attains stereoscopic effects with revolving disks. The magazine is handsomely printed, and bears the imprint of Macmillan & Co.

The second number of *Around the World* (Philadelphia: Contemporary Publishing Co.) shows an advance upon the first, and has some capital illustrations.

A note in the latest issue of the *Virginia Magazine of History and Biography* is concerned with Nicholas Hayward, a merchant of London and a land-owner in Virginia towards the end of the seventeenth century. Two of his brothers settled in Stafford County, Virginia, and one of them, Samuel, became justice, clerk of the county, and a member of the House of Burgesses. The editor of the *Magazine* conjectures this was the husband of Martha Hayward, sister of the emigrants John and Lawrence Washington, whose will was printed in the *Nation* in November, 1892. Mr. Ford conjectured that Nicholas was the husband; but as there is no direct evidence of Nicholas ever visiting Virginia, the probability is in favor of Samuel. Another point is suggested by the note. Martha Hayward left to "her kinsman, Richard Foote," some tobacco. A power of attorney from Nicholas Spencer, dated October 18, 1655, and recorded in Northumberland, authorizes his "servant," Richard Foote, to manage his affairs in Virginia. George Fitzhugh states in *De Bow's Review* that Foote was Hayward's nephew. In 1689 Foote was associated with Nicholas Hayward, George Brent, and Robert Bristow in the purchase of a tract of 30,000 acres in Prince William County (around the present village of Brentsville), and was then described as a merchant of London.

The meeting of the Geological Society of America, recently held in Boston, with one day's session in Cambridge, was characterized by large attendance, in which the more advanced students of geology from Harvard and the Institute of Technology made a good showing; and by the large numbers of papers presented. Little time was left for discussion and conference, even though a number of the essays sent in by absent authors were read by title only. Sir William Dawson of Montreal presided. Perhaps the two most notable papers were by Prof. G. H. Williams of Johns Hopkins University, on ancient volcanic rocks in eastern North America, attractive from its admirable presentation as well as from its high quality; and by Prof. T. C. Chamberlin of Chicago University, and his assistant, Mr. F. Leverett, on the past drainage systems of the upper Ohio basin, presented by the senior author, and impressive from the careful consideration of the various alternative conditions of its problems. The social part of the meeting was a pronounced success.

—The letter M still engages the editors of the "Dictionary of National Biography" (Macmillan), in volumes xxxvi. and xxxvii., which are the third and fourth of M, and end at Millyng. The literary interest of the work is still chiefly measured by Mr. Leslie Stephen's part in it, and his incomparable hand is seen in the notices of Malthus, Harriet Martineau, F. D. Maurice, James and John Stuart Mill; with one exception, a closely related group. The exception, of course, is Maurice, and Mr. Stephen's skilful exposition of this "Plato-

nist" is a delightful example of veiled criticism. In compact narration all these articles exhibit the mastery to which we are accustomed in the case of this writer. The investigation of Sir John Mandeville is noteworthy, and if he remains as mythical as ever, most readers will be surprised to find "Joe Miller" a substantial historical humorist, though not the father of the stale jokes imputed to him. The American gallery embraces John Mason, the founder of New Hampshire, and Capt. John Mason, the exterminator of the Pequots, Richard Mather and his sons Increase, Nathanael, and Samuel, Paul Mascarene, and, to make a great descent, the actress Adah Isaacs Menken. As to Richard Mather, we read: "William Gellibrand, the Puritan minister of Warrington, on hearing him preach, said, 'Call him Matter; for, believe it, this man hath substance in him.' This pun shows that the first vowel in Mather was short." We will end our selections with Capt. Marryat, for the sake of recalling his "Diary in America" (1839), and with Father Mathew and T. F. Meagher, in order to remark that their casting in their lot with the pro-slavery party in this country has been overlooked by their biographers.

—A committee of the Association of Collegiate Alumnae has made out a table showing the sums given by women during the last thirteen years to colleges for men only, for women only, and for men and women together. In spite of the fact that in 1880, with which year the report begins, Vassar College was already fifteen years old, and that the desirableness of the higher education for women was therefore already patent, it appears that the generous zeal with which women, ever since the days of Lady Anne Radcliffe Moulton, have contributed to the education of men has in no wise abated. During this time, women have given five times as much for the education of men alone as for the education of women alone, and they have given nearly twice as much for men's colleges as for women's colleges and mixed colleges put together. During only two of these thirteen years has Harvard College failed to receive considerable gifts from women, and the total amount received by Harvard alone exceeds the amount received by all the women's colleges together. If all the men whose education has been facilitated by the self-denial of women were to emulate this extraordinary openhandedness on the part of the more generous sex, then indeed the women's colleges would be amply supplied with the funds they so much need. Perhaps the most extraordinary gift this generation has seen is the legacy just made to Harvard College by the widow of the late Lewis Hayden of Boston, both born into slavery and ransomed by flight. Mrs. Hayden's will devotes a considerable sum to the founding of a scholarship for needy colored students at Harvard, preferably in the Medical School.

—Last week there was presented to the Board of Overseers of Harvard College a forcibly drawn petition, numerously and weightily signed by residents of this city, in opposition to the newly proposed relation between the Annex (alias "Radcliffe College") and the University. This relation, in a word, involves a countersigning by Harvard's President of the diplomas issued by the new college, on condition that the instructors employed meet the approval of the Harvard Corporation. The petition points out the difference in value between such a diploma and Harvard's own for men, first because the former would not (and could not) bear on its face an

explicit affirmation of equivalence, and secondly because "the identity of examiners and of examinations for the students of Radcliffe College and for those of Harvard College is in no way guaranteed by Harvard University" in the arrangement contemplated. If there were a real equivalence, the petitioners "are unable to see why the identical degree and diploma of Harvard College should not be conferred upon such students of Radcliffe College as are certified by their college to have pursued a course of study equivalent in amount and quality to that for which the degree of Bachelor of Arts is conferred in Harvard College, and to have passed in a satisfactory manner the examinations prescribed by Harvard College on that course." In default of this, a "degree-certificate" like that issued by the English Universities of Cambridge and Oxford would be far preferable to the countersigned diploma of a woman's college. The Overseers have appointed a committee to consider this argument, which, we believe, will be found irrefragable. That there are many sentimental, physical, and pecuniary obstacles to the immediate fulfilment of the wishes of the New York petitioners, is obvious; but it seems equally plain that the Radcliffe College scheme would postpone instead of hasten the day when "the humanities" will be taught at Harvard to human beings without regard to sex.

—The death at Cambridge, Mass., on January 10, of Frank Bolles, cut short a remarkable career. As secretary of Harvard University since 1886 he had made that office, which had previously been one of red-tape and formality, thoroughly human, to the great gain of both students and faculty. He had, moreover, by a series of judicious and clear pamphlets, set forth the actual working of Harvard, its methods of instruction, and the scope of its departments. Only last year, in a pamphlet on Students' Expenses, he helped to correct the impression that Harvard is a rich man's college. He was, in the truest sense, the student's friend, and there are scores of young men in all parts of the country who owe their start to his solicitude and sympathy. In this respect Mr. Bolles's usefulness at Harvard complemented that of Phillips Brooks; as the latter ministered to the spiritual needs of several generations of students, so the former ministered to their practical needs, finding work, temporary or permanent as the case might require, and fitting the right men into the right places with rare perspicacity. As our readers know, Mr. Bolles left behind him literary works of exceptional merit. His 'Land of the Lingering Snow' and 'At the North of Bearcamp Water' have suggested comparison with Thoreau and Richard Jefferies, though to our thinking he is distinguished from them and their followers by his absolute impersonality. He describes a walk through a wood or a stroll by a river with the impartiality of a scientist, and carefully abstains from indulging in what Ruskin calls the "pathetic fallacy"; he does not moralize nor sentimentalize. That he could have worked the other vein successfully, such a passage as that at the close of the sketch "A Night Alone on Chocorua" bears sufficient witness. His early sketches, printed in a newspaper, at once received Lowell's commendation; his two books, though so recently published, have already been cordially received in this country and in England. Still, we must think his loss to the University more irreparable than to letters.

—A literary event which throws a curious side light upon the drift of contemporary poli-

tics, has just taken place in Germany. For several years past, signs have been accumulating which indicate that the German drama is at present undergoing a revolution that bears a striking resemblance to the "Storm and Stress" movement of the eighteenth century, and which, under favorable conditions, will make dramatic art once more what it was in the times of Goethe and Schiller, a leading factor in the higher national life. Even what has been accomplished thus far is worthy of most serious consideration. Works like Gerhart Hauptmann's "Weber," or Hermann Sudermann's "Ehre," cannot fail to impress one as remarkable productions, if for no other reason, on account of the fervent republicanism and the burning hatred of social injustice pervading them. One of the most recent manifestations of this same spirit is Ludwig Fulda's "Der Talisman." Fulda is, perhaps, the most refined and graceful of the younger German writers. He has published lyrics of rare melodiousness and power; he has contributed several volumes to Kirschner's "Nationalliteratur," showing his tact and good sense as a literary historian; he has translated Molière with remarkable elegance and delicacy. Even in the "Talisman" the political invective appears under the guise of exquisite art. It is a dramatization of the familiar old fairy tale of the imaginary garment which, it is supposed, can be seen only by the good and the wise. The alleged owner of this garment, and the chief character of the play, is King Astolf of Cyprus, a man whose haughty self-assertion and implicit belief in the divineness of his royal office would commend themselves strongly to the present ruler of Germany. Although he cannot fail to have seen through the false play of the impostor who has spread the fame of the wonderful garment abroad, yet, seeing that the whole court submits to the humbug, he finally makes up his mind to submit to it himself. A grand procession is arranged at which the credulity of the people is to be tried. The King appears, surrounded by his courtiers, under a gorgeous canopy. The people throng about, each, for obvious reasons, vying with the other in boundless admiration of the wonderful robe of his Majesty, when of a sudden there is heard a child's voice: "Why, the King hasn't got anything on!" Of course, a great uproar follows, and a wild unloosening of popular passion so long repressed. In the midst of the tumult, the King rises for a moment to a certain fictitious greatness. He *will* have the people believe in his imaginary splendor, he *will* believe in it himself, he actually feels the flutter of the royal mantle on his shoulders; crazed with rage he commands his subjects to kneel down and adore him—until the frenzy overpowers him and he sinks down, shivering and shaking.

—It is not surprising that this play should have been largely interpreted in Germany as a poet's answer to the extravagant vagaries of the present Emperor. Ever since its first production at the Deutsches Theater in Berlin last February, it has drawn crowded houses. A few weeks ago, the Schiller prize—a national prize which is awarded every three years, by a commission composed of the most distinguished scholars and literary critics of Germany, to the best poetic work which has appeared within that time—was assigned to its author. And now comes the news that the Emperor has vetoed the vote of the commission, thereby giving Ludwig Fulda a good chance to become a German classic. The next step for his Majesty to take would be to promulgate an edict to the

effect that until further notice no German subject shall be allowed to arrogate to himself the title of poet, with the exception of the Geheime Legationsrat Ernst von Wildenbruch, whose earnest and effective efforts to present the history of the glorious Hohenzollern dynasty in a becoming and not too realistically truthful light should commend themselves to every patriotic citizen.

LIDDON'S PUSEY.

Life of Edward Bouverie Pusey, D.D., Canon of Christ Church; Regius Professor of Hebrew in the University of Oxford. By Henry Parry Liddon, D.D., D.C.L., LL.D., late Canon and Chancellor of St. Paul's. Edited and prepared by the Rev. J. O. Johnston, M.A., and the Rev. Robert J. Wilson, M.A. In four volumes: Vol. I. (1800-1886), Vol. II. (1836-1846). With portraits and illustrations. Longmans, Green & Co. 1888.

Dr. Pusey died September 16, 1886, and Dr. Liddon entered immediately upon the work of writing his biography. Dr. Liddon died in 1890 and left the work unfinished, from no lack of diligence, but because his ground plan of the work involved for its superstructure a very great amount of careful preparation, much choosing and rejecting of materials, and much labor in the building together of those finally selected into a structure at once massive in its unity and symmetrical in all its parts. If Dr. Liddon could have carried on the work to its completion, all his friends and Dr. Pusey's would have been glad. For the two volumes now published (pp. 479, 530) he left an elaborate first draft, which is also good for ten years of vol. iii. For the rest he left carefully arranged materials, and his editors can be trusted to use them entirely in his spirit. That vols. i. ii. bring us down only to 1846, the year after Newman's secession, is much more the subject's fault than the biographer's. Dr. Liddon is never diffuse. There is not a page of his that we would willingly spare, though it is a good deal more plain and colorless, for the most part, than Dean Church's "Oxford Movement," which comes down to the same date. But Dr. Pusey's talent for elaboration was phenomenal. Writing of his condemned sermon of 1843, the Rev. J. B. Mozley says: "Some said it was a long sermon, others that it was not longer than usual," and both were probably right. In his literary expression he was nothing if not incontinent. When the other Tractarians were putting their thoughts into a few pages, he must have a few hundreds to express his own. His letters had the same defects of his quality as his books and sermons. They are very long, and it must be confessed that they are often very dull. Should any ask why Dr. Liddon did not abridge them, the answer is—abridgment was no easy matter. They are not long because they are diffuse, but because they are elaborate. Dr. Pusey could not express himself at once briefly and clearly. It might almost be said that he could express himself neither briefly nor clearly. But those who have read Newman and Ward and Williams and Mozley and Church upon the Oxford Movement will not be much troubled by the length of these volumes. Those best informed about the general movement will be most interested in this account of Pusey's part in it. There is no general treatment, and no dwelling upon others, even Newman, that is not necessary to a clear understanding of Dr. Pusey's activity and influence. The almost entire absence of Hurrell

Froude from the narrative is a sign of this, Froude's noisy arrogance having been abated by his early death just at the time when Pusey was appearing on the scene.

Pusey was a few months older than Newman, who was born February 21, 1801; Pusey August 22, 1800. They were Fellows of Oriel together for five years from 1823, but for much of this period Pusey was in Germany. His life resolves itself into a succession of episodes, and the first that brought him into public notice was the defence of German theology, which he published in 1828, a reply to the Rev. Hugh J. Rose's 'State of Protestantism in Germany.' Pusey's criticism was much more sympathetic than Rose's, but its tenderness for German liberalism was much exaggerated at the time and has been since. Rose's reply to his book did much to fix on Pusey the stigma of liberalism, and his rejoinder did not completely heal the wound. Evidently Whately and the other "Noetics" thought he had become as one of them, and Newman feared he was lost. Pusey's central idea, that German liberalism was merely the reaction from an excessive "orthodoxism," and Rose's that it was occasioned by the absence of ecclesiastical control, seen from the present, are about equally absurd. From his German residence Pusey derived all that was soundest in his Hebrew scholarship, the only department of his scholarship that had any soundness; and there it was grammatical and textual, in the broader aspects wasting its strength to save a battle (the authenticity of Daniel) that was already lost.

His first approximation to the Tractarians was in his defence of the cathedral system against a scheme for sweeping innovations. Newman's anti-Protestantism declared itself in his objection to Pusey's calling Calvin a saint —this on the eve of his departure for the Mediterranean. The Movement began immediately after his return, July 14, 1833, when Keble preached on the suppression of the Irish bishoprics, denouncing it as a "great apostasy." So Newman reckoned, but Pusey dated the Movement from the publication of 'The Christian Year' in 1827. Without identifying himself closely with the Movement, he was soon circulating the tracts; and the eighteenth, on fasting, has his initials, the sign of his qualified adhesion to the cause. It drew Dr. Arnold's fire, awakening his fear that Pusey was going over to "the admiration of Christian antiquity." The Hampden controversy, so conspicuous in every history of the Oxford Movement, is much dwelt upon, but we must go elsewhere for a just estimate of Newman's "Elucidations" of Hampden's book. Pusey was hardly less active than Newman in opposing Hampden for the provostship of Oriel, but he had none of Newman's inherent predilection for sinister and savage methods of ecclesiastical revenge. In this connection there is no more interesting passage than that on Blanco White. It is as disparaging of Whately as it is ardent in its praise of White's sincerity, ability, and scholarship. Hampden's Bampton lectures, with their unqualified depreciation of scholastic and patristic renderings of Christianity, are traced back to White's influence. "It is not too much to say that he is the real founder of the modern latitudinarian school in the English Church."

Before the Hampden controversy had reached its climax in Hampden's deprivation by Convocation, May 5, 1836, of certain privileges of his office, Pusey had thrown himself into the Movement with all the weight of his tract on Baptismal Regeneration. Newman was

about discontinuing the tracts, but Pusey's adhesion determined him to keep on with them. Indeed, there was a physical necessity for their continuance in the length of Pusey's tract, which, requiring a second part, carried the series beyond the point assigned for their suspension. Newman has told us of the immense importance of Pusey's unqualified accession. His wealth, his scholarship, his character, his social standing, all contributed to make his influence significant. The popular exchange of the titles "Tractarianism" and "Newmanites" for "Puseyism" and "Puseyites" indicated his importance, though it was furthered by his frank avowal of his authorship where that of others was concealed. From 1836 to 1845 the intimacy of Pusey and Newman was very close, and their mutual admiration and regard were characterized by a remarkable depth and sweetness. The impression, however, is unavoidable that even before Newman was on his Anglican death-bed, as he called it, Pusey was granted a less absolute confidence than he deserved, a good deal less than that given to Keble. The motive may have been creditable to Newman—a dread of wounding the sensibility of his friend—but the facts sometimes smack of moral cowardice, as where Pusey is left to find out in some roundabout way Newman's retraction of his abuse of Rome and in general his inclination to the Roman Church.

Nothing in this narrative is so strange as Pusey's blindness to the Romeward tendency of Newman's thought and feeling. Up to the verge of his secession, Pusey could not or would not see that he was travelling that way and sure to get there soon or late. And that his blindness was much greater than it would otherwise have been because of Newman's imperfect confidence, there can be no doubt. It had, however, a more serious cause—his own perfect confidence in the English Church while he went along with Newman in every particular of his opinions concerning fasting, baptism, the eucharist, and the other things concerning which he adopted "high doctrine," the doctrine of the Roman Church. Pusey had nothing but approval for Tract 90, or any subsequent position which Newman took up. He was even warm in his general approval of Ward's 'Ideal Church,' though that church was not the Primitive of his aspiration, but the Roman of concrete reality. From the same premises he and Newman derived different conclusions. The reader is aware of their divergence before it impressed Newman, long before Pusey was aware of it. But it was a divergence of logical and practical conclusions, not of doctrinal and ritualistic inclinations. Newman expected Pusey to follow him to Rome and urged him eagerly and passionately to do so. Later he wrote, in the 'Apologia,' that "all the time I knew him he was never near to it at all." And he was right; though what kept Pusey Anglican was less his "reason and judgment," as Newman wrote, than his instinct, which did not waver for an hour.

There is a wonderful pathos in the relation of Pusey to Newman in the last days of Newman's Anglican difficulties. The impression is continuous that Pusey's was the simpler mind, the better heart, the more generous disposition. The pathos has its comic side in Pusey's final account of Newman's loss. It was something peculiar and providential, and therefore not an example to be followed. It was God's answer to the prayers of Continental Catholics that he might come to them, while there were no Anglican prayers to the contrary, or not enough to withstand the opposing stress. Then,

too, the Roman Church was much in need of him to cheer her spiritual desolation. Such were the ingenuities with which Pusey soothed his torn and bleeding heart.

Nothing could more positively attest the unbending strength of Pusey's Anglican sentiments than the fact that, while Newman was on his last legs, Pusey was himself subjected to ecclesiastical condemnation and suspended from preaching in the University for two years, the last two years of Newman's lengthened misery of parting. The condemnation was imposed with every circumstance of injustice that could make it rankle in his breast. Newman's treatment in respect to Tract 90 had not been half so bad. But while Newman's was the beginning of the end, Pusey's had no similar effect. That was because Newman's bishop was, as he said, his Pope. The Vice-Chancellor was not Pusey's. Behind the individual functionary he saw the Church and stayed his heart on her. Nor were his condemnation and suspension the only troubles that would have hurried him along with Newman or after him if he had had any thought of going. He gave a church to Leeds at an expense of £6,000, having given £5,000 to the London churches a few years before. There was no end to the obstructions and suspicions which he encountered in this business. True, it was not known that he was the donor, but that made no difference. The evangelicals would have said, if they had known it, "Thy money perish with thee." But the annoyance swerved him neither to the one hand nor the other. He bated no jot of his high sacramental doctrine, and Newman's open arms had for him not a moment's danger of perversion in their proffered peace.

The building of the church at Leeds, and especially the arrangement of the altar and reredos and their belongings, afford an interesting commentary on the popular mistake which fathers upon Pusey the ritualistic departure of later Anglicanism. To that departure he was less favorable than opposed. Of its ecclesiastical millinery he knew next to nothing, and at Leeds we find him fumbling ridiculously over details which are now understood infallibly by tyros in the ritualistic cult. Others were not wiser than himself, for in these strange things there was still much to learn.

That Pusey stayed when Newman went made an incalculable difference to the English Church. If Pusey and Keble had seceded, the stampede would have been like the outgoing of a flood. Keble remained because he had always been a high churchman, while Newman had been always on the move. Pusey remained because he was persuaded that his sacramental system was that of the Church of Antiquity and the Caroline divines, and because of his instinctive passionate devotion to the church of his baptism. His sacramentalism was something wonderful in its naïve assurance of the magical operation of the sacramental offices. It reached its climax in his recital to Newman of the horrible experience of a poor woman who had taken the eucharistic bread "unworthily." His intellectual force was nothing to his erudition, and, though he led away and safely folded the poor sheep whom Newman had left to shift for themselves, the attraction of the Movement for men of superior intelligence ceased after 1845. As for Pusey's erudition, it was strangely void of genuine historical appreciation. His appeal to antiquity was to a petty fragment of it, and why he should accord to this fragment an infallible voice he did not attempt to show. He repudiated Newman's 'Development of Christian Doctrine' as hostile to the famous "Quod semper," etc., as in-

deed it was, but without some such device both he and Newman were hopelessly adrift and making for the Socinian shore. That Newman saw this, while Pusey did not suspect it, is a proof of his more resolute intelligence.

The more personal and private aspects of Pusey's life were touched with many sorrows and anxieties. His devotion to his wife and to her memory was passionately fond. Her death made him more of a recluse than ever, and there was little need of that. His generosity was boundless, and it took more than the superflux of his liberal means. His goodness and sincerity illumine every page. His spiritual perceptions were singularly deep and true, and he lived according to their light. It was thus that he became the friend of many "spirits in prison," and delivered them from their bonds. His biographers have yet to tell of his most signal service to the English church. In 1846 he had still thirty-six years to live. They were to be full of study and anxiety and abundant recognition, love, and praise; but they would bring him no friend like Newman, and no events approaching the dramatic interest of those in which he and Newman took the leading parts upon a memorable stage.

RECENT LAW BOOKS.

PROF. KEENER has made a contribution of high importance to legal literature in his 'Treatise on the Law of Quasi-Contracts' (Baker, Voorhis & Co.). It is a pleasure, in the multitude of commonplace and hasty publications which pass for legal treatises, to observe this product of careful labor and genuine scholarship. The book has a peculiar value in the novelty of its subject. Acute writers in the past, like Mr. Justice Metcalf, Sir Henry Maine, and Sir Frederick Pollock, have perceived the confusion hidden under the name "implied contract," and pointed out that "contracts implied in law" are really not contracts at all. But it was left for Prof. Keener to lift the subject bodily out of the region of contract, and to systematize and classify these duties imposed by positive law, which, chiefly for reasons of procedure, have so long masqueraded as consensual obligations. The terminology of "quasi contract" and "unjust enrichment," borrowed from the civil law and Continental systems, will seem still somewhat strange to English-speaking lawyers, although not unknown to modern writers. The value of the former term, however, for purposes of precise legal thinking, is beyond question; and we venture the prediction that few lawyers, not familiar with Prof. Keener's previous work, will fail to be surprised at the body of law which he has collected to substantiate his theory of unjust enrichment as a cause of action in our law. His authorities include an instance of the use by an English judge of the seventeenth century, dealing with a typical quasi-contract, of the maxim, "Nemo debet locupletari ex alterius incommmodo." Much ingenuity and logical acuteness are shown in handling the cases, and so explaining and distinguishing them as to support the author's views. This is noticeable in the interesting chapter on "Waiver of Tort," in which, however, there may be some slighting of the historical development of the doctrine. It is to be regretted that, in a subject containing so little that is technical, and resting so peculiarly on broad principles of justice and convenience, the scope of the book has not permitted some comparison with

the Roman law and with other systems of jurisprudence.

'Cassoday on Wills' (St. Paul: West Publishing Co.) is a series of lectures delivered by the learned author before the College of Law of the University of Wisconsin, and published as they were delivered, without alteration or enlargement. The book is a small one, but it contains a neat, if somewhat bare, statement of leading propositions in the law of wills. It is based on the English statutes; and the decisions cited are mostly from the courts of England and Wisconsin.

'Black's Pomeroy on Water Rights' (West Publishing Co.) is a series of articles by the late Prof. Pomeroy which first appeared in the *West Coast Reporter*, and are now, since the author's death, collected and published by Mr. Henry Campbell Black, with annotations and additions. The subject, the law of water rights in the Pacific States, is one which has greatly interested students of our system of law, affording as it does an admirable instance of the adaptability of the English common law to conditions wholly strange; or, rather, perhaps, of the evolution direct from the community of a new body of rules suitable to its needs. The book may, therefore, have an interest quite outside its assistance to the practising lawyer, which must necessarily be somewhat local. Prof. Pomeroy's articles are thoughtful and interesting, and the editor's work seems to be well done. A suspicion of "padding" in the make-up of the volume is presumably chargeable to the publishers.

'Phillips on Mechanics' Liens' (Boston: Little, Brown & Co.), is a new and careful (third) edition of a well-known book. In a subject entirely statutory and highly technical, there is an obvious limit to the value of any general treatise, more especially when no attempt is made to discuss the statutes of the different States separately. No lawyer could safely take a step in enforcing a mechanics' lien without a more intimate acquaintance with his local law than could be had from this source; and it may be questioned whether the book does not tend sometimes to mislead in giving the impression that there is something like a common law of the subject. Certainly the author might to advantage have done more in the way of comparing the statutes and tracing their relationship. But there is ground for hoping that the method adopted may help towards the happy result of a greater similarity among the various systems in the future; and the need of a third edition is evidence that the book has met a want of the profession.

Mr. Dwight Arven Jones has given the New York bar a handbook of a very useful kind in his 'Business Corporation Laws' (Baker, Voorhis & Co.). It contains the text of the various statutes now in force in this State on the subject of corporations, with references to decisions and to previous enactments. Every careful lawyer knows how important is the historical study of a statute; and in the maze of our recent corporation laws this assistance to such study is of manifest value.

'The Patent-Office Manual,' by George H. Knight (Little, Brown & Co.), is a collection of leading decisions on points of patent law, and especially on the practice of the Patent Office. The various heads are arranged in alphabetical order, with a brief statement of the law on each, and references to the cases. The volume is too small for anything more than a synopsis of the subject, and it is not clear in what respect there would be any considerable gain in its use over more complete treatises on patent

law, except that it is brought down to a very recent date. The slovenly fashion of citing cases should be mentioned: decisions of the Supreme Court are cited in at least three different ways, and a reference to the regular reports seems rather the exception than the rule.

An eighth edition of Best's 'Principles of the Law of Evidence' is published by the Boston Book Company. It has been prepared by J. M. Lely of the English bar, and notes upon American and Canadian cases are added by Charles T. Chamberlayne of the bar of Boston. The original work has too long been a standard to require comment here, but we think that the editors might wisely lay more emphasis upon the chronology of the development of the subject. Since parties were permitted to testify, there has been no fundamental change in the law of evidence, even by statute. Such changes as have taken place consist for the most part in the subsumption of new cases under well-known principles. Many of these cases have been watched for, as filling in known gaps in the law, and it is convenient to know not only the name of the case, but the time of the decision. Of course, if we are told that a certain point was finally decided in a certain case, we can ascertain the date; but the editor could easily save us that time and trouble. In our judgment, also, it is desirable to let the original text of a standard work remain unchanged, the contributions of editors being printed so as to be distinguishable; but in the work before us it is impossible to tell the source of many statements without comparing the different editions. The American annotator seems to have collected an abundance of cases, but not to have done much in the way of indicating the development of the law. Thus we find no mention of the important case of the People against Carlyle Harris, regarded by many of the profession with grave doubt; and the People against Jacob Sharp is cited only to establish the proposition that witnesses should state facts and not inferences.

Aspects of Modern Oxford. By a Mere Don. Macmillan. 1893.

EVERY one who knows the Oxford of to-day knows that its academic life is altogether dominated by the tutorial system. But what that system is it is difficult for the outsider to realize; as many a hard-worked tutor must have reflected when he has listened to the passing visitor's sentimental commonplaces as to monastic retirement and cloistered seclusion. The outsider will understand it a good deal better when he has read the paper entitled "Diary of a Don" in the pleasant little volume of light essays which bears the title 'Aspects of Modern Oxford.' The author prefers to be anonymous; but there are various indications which would lead us to identify him with one of the most distinguished of the classical tutors of one of Oxford's most splendid foundations—one, in brief, who knows that whereof he writes. And this same paper will throw some light on another problem. It is sometimes alleged that there is a certain want of scholarly and scientific productivity among Oxford teachers—such as seems somewhat inconsistent with the conception of a university. Without entering into any elaborate inquiry, it does seem on the face of it as if the assertion were not far from the truth. When we come to think of it, few of the important works proceeding from Oxford during the last few years can be assigned to tutors of the type now so powerful. Most of them have been the fruits of a leisure which the typical tutor must de-

spair of securing. For, as our author's amusing "Diary" shows us, the Oxford tutor of to-day lives in a whirl of scholastic work and business from morning to night. His time is frittered away in a multitude of small engagements and worrying duties; his very sitting-room is an office where he is never free from interruption. "A Mere Don" is a good-humored conservative in things academic; he doubtless belongs to the noble army of the "Non-Placets" of whom he speaks, who make it their business to vote down every proposal of change. He would be the first to laugh at us if we made his satire the text of an exhortation, or if we showed any inclination to join the ranks of those who would "Germanize" English institutions. But we might yet ask him whether his extravaganza has not enough verisimilitude to be properly disquieting to those who care for the interests of learning.

We would, however, with more vehemence, direct to this particular essay the attention of those who are concerned with the government of American universities. There has unquestionably been a growth of the spirit of research in America of late years; but by the side of it there has sprung up a new type of professor, of a sort which makes us pause with a certain consternation. We no longer have the elderly, semi-clerical professor, of deliberate demeanor and childlike ignorance of the world. Our modern professor prides himself on his energy, his travels, his openness to new ideas. Instead of the old-fashioned recitation, he lectures—a vast improvement, but involving a great deal more mental strain on his part; he sits on innumerable committees; he reads shoals of examination papers; he meets his pupils in an "office"; and, to crown it all, he "runs a seminary." Yet

"Alas for the excellent earnestness."

In the midst of it all, is there not only too great danger lest the man should become altogether dead so far as the advancement of learning is concerned? It would perhaps be unsafe to say that conscientiousness is a snare; but we certainly need to set the scientific conscience over against the pedagogic.

The whole book is agreeable reading for a couple of hours. It is the best sort of bright magazine work; and we hardly need the autobiographical revelations of the chapter on "University Journalism" to tell us that the author is an old *Oxford Magazine* hand. If it has any defect, it is that there is a rather too obvious straining after a tone of blasé omniscience and indifference. We must not omit to add that the note of "intimacy" is well sustained by the pictures. They are called "illustrations," although they have no particular connection with the text save that both text and illustrations depict the social aspects of Oxford life; and they are inserted without any sort of regard to the subjects of the adjacent pages. But we will not quarrel with them, whatever they are called. They are very successful in catching graceful fugitive impressions—chiefly, indeed, of Oxford in its character of an athletic club and a summer resort for "sisters and cousins and aunts." But it is going too far in condescension to the aunts' ignorance to entitle the frontispiece "In Cornmarket Street." A few years ago "the High, the Broad, the Turl, and the Corn," or "the Cornmarket," were good enough for undergraduates, and "street" was left to the local tradesmen.

Adventures in Mashonaland. By Two Hospital Nurses, Rose Blennerhassett and Lucy Sleeman. Macmillan & Co. 1893. Pp. xii, 340. 8vo.

THIS bright and entertaining book supplies an important gap in our knowledge of Mashonaland. We have had descriptions of this latest British acquisition, from the point of view of the prospector by Lord Randolph Churchill, from that of the antiquarian and scholar by Mr. J. Theo. Bent, and, still more recently, from that of the sportsman and pioneer by Mr. Selous; and now Miss Rose Blennerhassett gives us a lady's impressions of life in the early days of one of its mining settlements, in such a frank and genial way, with such mingled fun and pathos, together with no inconsiderable descriptive power, that her little book deserves to rank with such works as "Station Life in New Zealand" and "Life on an Ostrich-Farm."

The opening chapters tell of the experiences of the two nurses in the hospitals of Johannesburg and Kimberley, in each of which places they spent six months, and of their voyage from the Cape to Beira, a Portuguese town on the east coast. With their adventurous journey, in July, 1891, from this place to the interior, the real interest of the story begins. The episode is modestly told that most readers will fail to recognize it as an exploit hardly surpassed in the annals of African travel. These ladies, accompanied the first part of the way by two Englishmen and some native porters, the latter half by one Englishman and three "boys," walked nearly two hundred miles, through a country where the constantly winding path led now through grass ten feet high, across sandy plains, through fever-haunted swamps, over rapidly flowing rivers, and occasionally through beautiful park-like regions abounding with game. At one place, as they lay in their hastily built shelters, "the lions, coming down to drink at the swampy pool just in front of our huts, made such a terrific noise that the earth seemed to shake with their roaring." So accustomed did they become to their presence that they "almost began to look upon them as bores that kept one awake when one was sleepy."

Umtali was reached, apparently, in nine days, a part of the walk being "then the quickest on record." At this place they passed the two years of their service, and although their discomforts, privations, and perils are lightly, even humorously, treated, it is difficult to conceive of a life more entirely self-sacrificing than that of a nurse in a mining camp in Africa. For ten days they were besieged by lions, who not only raided the cattle-pens by night, but in broad daylight "coolly chased the police horses across the commonage." A leopard attempted to force its way into the hut where they lay prostrated with fever. A patient died in the hospital, "and a man with a loaded revolver sat there all night to protect the corpse from wild beasts." Yet it is not impossible that at times it was safer to live with them than with men the greater part of whom in those earliest days were generally "on the burst." There is an amusing account of Christmas, 1891, which, read between the lines, is infinitely sad, when "by noon every one in the place, with the exception of three or four men, was very tipsy indeed." The resident magistrate, when the quarrelsome stage was reached, arrested the Civil Commissioner, while the latter suspended the former from his functions, and "before midnight all the police were under arrest, we were told—the last man having provoked his punishment by holding a candle crooked, whilst

the Magistrate himself tied the thumbs of some of his prisoners."

Miss Blennerhassett's pen-portraits are not the least entertaining part of her book. It is evident that she shares the unbounded confidence of all other Africanders in the head of the Chartered Company. "Whatever happens, people shrug their shoulders and say: 'It will be all right; Rhodes will square it.'" During a two days' stay at Umtali, "he was besieged with petitions of all sorts. Malcontents and chronic grumblers went to his hut, and came away in a few moments cheerful and satisfied. Not that anything was altered in the condition of affairs—the man's mere personal magnetism wrought the change." Of Mr. Selous she says: "He is known throughout Africa as the man who never tells a lie." At one time the nurses had in their service one Wilkins, "an excellent but doddering old person," who had been with Livingstone. One of his stories exhibits the great missionary explorer in a decidedly new light:

"One morning, sisters, and 'tis as true as I'm a-biting this crust, we were surrounded by strange niggers—and them niggers meant mischief, if ever a nigger did. Livingstone he says, 'We're lost,' says he; 'we must go back and give up. Come here, Wilkins, and advise me!' And I up and says, 'Give up, Doctor? Never! Let's go and drive 'em off.' The Doctor he looks at me. 'Right you are,' he says; 'lead on, my brave fellow, and I'll follow.' And as true as I'm a living man we slew seventy before breakfast!"

The two ladies left Mashonaland in the summer of 1893 by the same route by which they had come up two years before, forty miles of the tedious journey, however, being by the Beira and Umtali Railway. It is in this way that Mr. Rhodes has "squared" the fever and the tsetse fly.

The Barbary Coast. By Henry M. Field. With illustrations. Scribners. 1893. 12mo, pp. 258.

DR. FIELD is an experienced traveller as well as an experienced writer. Without aiming to be learned or critical or statistical, he is accustomed to see and to hear and to tell. His books are therefore enjoyable if the reader pursues the flowing narrative in the same mood with which he would listen to the story of an intelligent friend who has lately visited a foreign land, with good introductions, sensible habits, and a kindly interest in all sorts and conditions of men. "The Barbary Coast" is probably the best, as it is the latest, of these epistolary narratives.

The author's itinerary began at Gibraltar, and it took him to Tangier, Oran, Algiers, Kabylia, Biskra, Constantine, and Tunis—a line of travel now made easy, even to Americans, by the excellent steamers on the Mediterranean, and the very fair railways and hotels which have accompanied the French in their occupancy of the southern shore of the great sea. At Tangier—most Occidental in position but most Oriental in character of all the towns on this route—Dr. Field (who had the good fortune to know the American unofficial resident, Mr. Perdicaris, and the American consul, Col. Matthews) was taken to visit the Moorish minister of foreign affairs and the bashaw who is governor of the city. Mr. Richard Harding Davis was his companion. "Davis, who is himself six feet, had for once to look up, and whispered to me (as the bashaw swept before us in his flowing robes), 'What a magnificent specimen of manly strength and beauty!'" From this reluctant governor the Americans obtained permission to enter the

prison, and there they saw the survival of that horrid kind of incarceration which once engulfed the Christian captives imprisoned by the Barbary pirates. "Starvation is the constant discipline in the prison of Tangiers. It takes a strong man to stand it long." No wonder that this humane visitor provided a hundred loaves of bread and distributed them one Sunday morning, "never more grateful for any privilege than that of going from one prisoner to another and giving to them bread." No incident of the journey is more striking than this. By singular good fortune, Dr. Field secured a "snap" photograph of Sidna Muley Hassan, the Sultan of Morocco, a likeness hardly bigger than a pin-head; and this, enlarged, makes one of the illustrations of the book. It is probably the only portrait in existence that gives any just impression of the man whom Mr. Perdicaris regards as "the best ruler that ever sat upon the throne of Morocco." This remark, by the way, suggests a well-known witticism: "Louis Philippe was the greatest monarch on the throne of France after the first Napoleon."

Algiers, often described by travellers, seems to have suggested nothing unusual to Dr. Field. His account of the land of the Kabyles is more interesting, especially as he was prepared for it by Mr. Grellet's introduction to the habits of these strong mountaineers. The gorge of Chabet is well described. Biskra, on the northern edge of the Sahara, is the southernmost point of the French railway system, and, strange to say, it is now pictured as "a fashionable winter resort with all the features of similar resorts on the other side of the Mediterranean," a distinction due to its climate, "never troubled by the mists and fogs that often enwrap Algiers and the Riviera." Constantine reminds the author of Edinburgh, Jerusalem, and Toledo. A city that has been besieged and taken twenty-four times is now so quiet and orderly that the traveller "is under the protection of law as much as if he were in France itself." The town of Bone recalls to the Presbyterian visitor the story of St. Augustine, "though the ancient Hippo is gone; not a trace of it remains." Tunis came next, another town half French, half African; near by, the ruins of Carthage, and, on the neighboring hilltop, the mausoleum of Cardinal Lavigerie, primate of Africa, and successor of St. Cyprian. From Tunis to Marseilles, and the narrative is ended. Charitable estimates of men of other faiths, of other politics, and of other manners mark every chapter of the book.

Authors and Their Public in Ancient Times.
By Geo. Haven Putnam. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1894.

THIS book is designed as a general introduction to a proposed history of the origin and development of literary property. Though the author knows that such a thing as literary property, in the modern sense of the term, had no existence in antiquity, yet he rightly judges that it is of interest, if not of absolute necessity to a clear understanding of its growth, to examine the conditions under which books were written, prepared for readers, published and distributed before the invention of printing. His book consists of six chapters. The first is a sketch of what he calls the beginnings of literature. It deals with the clay cylinder of Assyria and the Egyptian "Book of the Dead" (the first book ever offered for sale), the folk-songs and epics of China, Japan, and India, and the religious writings

of the Hebrews. In the next chapter we are brought to the first literature which deserves the name because it was unfettered by either kings or priests—that of the Greeks. Then comes "publication" through minstrels and rhapsodies, and through readings aloud by the authors themselves, then the beginnings of a reading public, collections of books, and the book market at Athens. Then, with the institution of the Museum, of the doings in which a full account is given, Alexandria became the rival book-mart, and in turn yielded to Rome, with the first great bookseller and publisher, Atticus. Finally, after Rome comes Constantinople. There is a special chapter on the materials of which ancient books were made and on the book-terminology of classic times.

It must be evident that a work like this, if thoroughly to be trusted, would be of great interest and usefulness to all book-lovers. This is by no means the first attempt at such a history. Mr. Putnam has a number of predecessors, though none in English of any importance, and he gives a good bibliography of them. He is not slow to acknowledge his obligations, especially to the works of Clement, Schmitz, Birt, and Haenny. Where he follows them we have as a rule little fault to find. But it is extremely unfortunate that he should not have submitted his book, before publication, to a classical scholar, since he himself, as he admits in his preface, is none. Yet three-fourths of it deals with Greece and Rome! It needs a thorough revision, for, to say nothing of misprints and errors in Greek words (from which, too, the accents are generally omitted), misquotations in Latin (on p. 208 there are ten errors in a poem of eighteen verses), and many mistakes in citations of the authors, there are numerous blunders of another sort. Such, for instance, is the idea that the Greek dramatic poet made any money by the sale of theatre tickets, that "rhapsody" meant originally poems sewed together, that the laws of Solon are extant somewhere, that Suidas wrote in Latin, and that the passage quoted from the "Frogs" on page 71 was addressed by Eschylus to Euripides, and that it referred to any particular tragedy—the fact being that it is spoken by Euripides, and that he was talking about the art in general. We have referred mainly to Greek matters, but this kind of error is enough to throw doubt on the authority of the whole book. It cannot be recommended in its present form, and yet, after careful correction, it might become a standard work.

Vertebrate Embryology: A text-book for students and practitioners. By A. Milnes Marshall, M.D., D.Sc., M.A., F.R.S., Professor in the Victoria University, etc. 8vo, pp. 640, 255 figures. London: Smith, Elder & Co.; New York: Macmillan. 1893.

THE publication of this work within a few months after those of Minot and Hertwig—Mark is noteworthy and a cause for gratification. Intermediate in size, it differs radically in plan. The larger part is occupied by "consecutive and straightforward accounts" of the main facts in the development of five vertebrate types, the lancelet, frog, fowl, rabbit, and man. The first and the last—the dunce and the genius of a class—have special claims to consideration; on purely theoretic grounds the others might perhaps be replaced by less highly specialized forms, but practically they are acceptable.

An introduction of thirty-six pages gives a "General Account of the Development of Ani-

mals," necessarily brief, but for the most part clear and suggestive. It closes with an excellent presentation of the "Recapitulation Theory," from which we select the following passages:

"Evolution tells us that each animal has had a pedigree. Embryology reveals to us this ancestry, because every animal in its own development repeats its history, climbs up its own genealogical tree. It is indeed a history, but a history of which entire chapters are lost, while in those that remain many pages are misplaced, and others are so blurred as to be illegible; words, sentences, or entire paragraphs are omitted, and, worse still, alterations or spurious additions of later date have been freely introduced, and at times so cunningly as to defy detection."

In the preface the author makes frank acknowledgment of his indebtedness to other observers, and expresses regret that Minot's "important treatise on Human Embryology only came into my hands while the last sheets of my own book were passing through the press, and that I have been unable to avail myself of the rich store of facts, and of the numerous suggestive explanations which his work contains." This regret will be shared by most readers, since only experts can escape some confusion, due to the radical differences in terms and even opinions. For example, in the present work the three germ layers are designated as *epiblast*, *hypoblast*, and *mesoblast*; Minot's equivalents, *ectoderm*, *entoderm*, and *mesoderm*, are not given, even as synonyms, while Minot mentions the other set of terms only in his preface to discard them. The student and general reader might well be puzzled on consulting the index to either work. *Artage* and *fundament*, apparently indispensable to Minot and Mark respectively, have not been found in the present volume, although there are places where some equivalent *e. g.*, the *proton* of Aristotle might well have been employed. Marshall, like most zoologists, regards the lancelet as "clearly and undoubtedly a vertebrate" (p. 44), while Minot declares (p. 187) that "it is not a true vertebrate." Respecting the twisted appearance of the umbilical cord, our author says (p. 601): "It is clear that, as the cord twists, the embryo must rotate"; but Minot denies (p. 361) the existence of any proof of such rotation, or even of the actual twisting of the cord. To the impartial and bewildered layman it will probably occur that the conditions and the established facts should be submitted to an expert in physics.

The author's laudable intentions as to explicitness have not saved him from the common fault of vague generalization; when, for example, on p. 23, he states that the mesoblast forms the largest portion of the embryo in the "higher animals," does he mean the mammals, or the warm-blooded mammals and birds, or the air-breathing mammals, birds, and reptiles, or all above the fishes? The statement (p. 25) that the "tadpole is really a fish, not merely as regards its breathing organs, but in all details of its organization," might be submitted to a scientific body as an expression of opinion, but is quite out of place in a manual for students. It is hard to see what useful end is gained by the declaration (p. 90) that "as a group Amphibia [frogs, salamanders, etc.] are characterized more especially by the double nature of their breathing organs." A combined aquatic and aerial respiration occurs likewise in the dipnoans and in several ganoids, not to speak of the pharyngeal respiration of certain turtles. Minor errors are the application of *cryptobranchus* to the Japanese *megalobatrachus*, and the employment of *am-*

phioxus in place of the prior (although less acceptable) *branchiostoma*.

As in most recent works, the ambiguous *anterior* and *posterior* are commonly accompanied by or discarded for the explicit *ventral* and *dorsal* as applied to the regions of the body, nerve-roots, etc. But, as might be expected, in the early stages of transition from the old extrinsic to the new intrinsic toponomy, some odd usages occur. For example, on p. 471, the portion of the body of an embryo is said to be "concave upward"; on p. 471 the portion of the dog's uterus farthest from the head is termed the "distal or lower part," and on p. 572 *distal* is used where peripheral would commonly be preferred.

The illustrations are mostly clear and accurate, and uniformity of abbreviation has been aimed at. There are no adequate diagrams of the general constitution of the embryo by three layers, and the two figures referred to are less available than others (17-20) farther on. Since the section on the frog is substantially based upon the author's own observations, it is disappointing to find five early stages represented by figures of models (fig. 58).

At the end of each chapter is a list of the more important recent publications on the subject arranged alphabetically by authors; but "in the text no attempt is made to assign the several statements to their original authors." In this and in some other respects the present work will be less useful for the advanced student or investigator than Minot's more elaborate treatise; but it is just what it purports to be, and will probably supply the wants of a larger number than the works of either Minot or Hertwig-Mark. A valuable section, absent or abbreviated in the other two, discusses the relation of ovulation to menstruation, and the data for estimating the age of a human embryo. The index is unusually complete, but Kleinenberg's ingenious hypothesis as to the office of "rudimentary and functionless organs" (p. 33) is not entered under any one of the three words.

The Industries of Animals. By Frédéric Houssay. (Contemporary Science Series.) Charles Scribner's Sons. 1893. Pp. xii, 258, 8vo. Illustrated.

Romance of the Insect World. By L. N. Badenoch. Macmillan & Co. 1893. Pp. xviii, 341, 8vo. Illustrated.

Letters to Marco. By Geo. D. Leslie, R.A. Macmillan. 1893. Pp. xviii, 260, 8vo. Illustrated.

The Outdoor World, or Young Collector's Handbook. By W. Furneaux, F.R.G.S. Longmans, Green & Co. 1893. Pp. xxviii, 411, 8vo. 16 colored plates and 500 cuts.

Our Household Insects; An Account of the Insect Pests found in Dwelling-houses. By Edward A. Butler, B.Sc. Longmans. 1893. Pp. x, 344, 8vo. 6 plates and 113 illustrations in the text.

THE growing interest in science has led to the preparation of many books in which the facts which are supposed to appeal most strongly to the general reader are imbedded in a jelly of literature provided to insure a certain continuity in the result. The ability to do this well is rare, and by common consent is found more frequently on the Continental side of the English Channel than among British writers. M. Houssay does not fail to sustain with credit the reputation of his compatriots. The French original of his little work is written with characteristic ease and grace, which are not en-

tirely lost in the translation, although the latter is obviously the work of some one unversed in idiomatic English. The author divides the different industries of animals into groups, beginning with fishing and hunting, on the one hand, and, on the other, illustrating the means adopted by animals to avoid becoming the prey of fishers and hunters. Next are considered the collection of food, the commensalism of mutually beneficial animals and the practice of slaveholding, the construction and hygiene of dwellings and their defence against attacks from without. The book is pleasant reading, the faults of translation are too simple to be very annoying, and the illustrations, being mostly derived from Brehm's "Thierleben," are good. The scientific accuracy of the statements made is above the average in such books, the few exceptions seeming to be chargeable to the translator.

The "Insect World" affords no romance, in spite of the author's title: the ground covered by the second work on our list is, practically, much the same as in M. Houssay's book. The language, though idiomatic, is often forced or turgid, and the drawings, when original, are "woolly" and obscure. There is nothing novel or particularly attractive in the author's mode of presentation, though many facts of interest in the life of insects are brought together in the book.

The letters to Marco were written by Mr. Leslie to an old friend, who presumably was house-bound, and are illustrated by many admirable little pen-and-ink sketches of natural objects, views and bits of architecture. Slight as they are from any point of view, they still preserve the lightness of the open air and the fragrance of garden and wood. Altogether this is a book for any denied by fate the privilege of country rambling.

Mr. Furneaux's hand-book is very fully illustrated by somewhat coarse but characteristic colored plates and numerous cuts of various degrees of merit. He tries to cover the entire field of collecting animal, vegetable, and mineral specimens, and on the whole succeeds very well. The book is distinctively British: it is the British fauna and flora which are illustrated, and the British collector's dialect which occasionally finds a place in its intentionally untechnical text. For English boys we should think the book worthy of high commendation. For our own boys and girls it is not without its use, as many of the animals and plants figured have closely related representatives on this side of the Atlantic, and many of the general instructions apply equally well to collectors in any temperate region. It will also give young people useful information about many animals and plants not found in America, but familiarly referred to in English literature and about which every intelligent person should know. We hope the time is not far distant when American boys and girls can find some hand-book, illustrated as well as this one, based on our own fauna and flora, clearly and distinctly written, and scientifically accurate.

As we are free from the pest of "common names," for the most part, children can learn, as they should, the true scientific names of the objects of their search. These names are not longer or more difficult than many words in daily use which every child is expected to understand, in spite of some silly notions to the contrary; and they convey exact ideas which the "common" names rarely do.

In "Our Household Insects" Mr. Butler has produced an excellent book, which any housewife may read with profit, and every entomologist will find convenient for reference. Al-

though primarily written for English readers, it is equally available for Americans. Unhappily, nearly every household pest can claim the world as its country and all mankind as its natural prey. The language is not technical, the text is written in an easy, yet not too familiar, style. Each of the various creatures referred to is fully described, its peculiarities pointed out and usually illustrated, its habits discussed, and the circumstances favoring its increase made clear. It is not a book of remedies for pests, but those who intelligently read it will be far better able to cope with their tormentors than ever before. The illustrations are excellent, and the publishers have done everything to present Mr. Butler's text in a form suitable for any library.

The Protection of Woodlands. Translated from the German by John Nisbet, D.C.E. New York: Wm. R. Jenkins. 1893.

THIS is an amended translation of the rearranged fourth edition of Kauschinger's "Lehr von Waldschutz," "a simple, scientific and practical little work," originally printed in 1873. A thorough reading of the book only confirms the commendatory words of the translator, who is a distinguished officer of the British forest service in India. After a brief introduction defining the aim and scope of the art of protecting woodlands, the book is divided into three sections. The first treats, in six chapters, of the protection of woodlands against injuries due to inorganic agencies such as frost, heat, rain, snow, hail, lightning, and excessive wetness or dryness of soil. The second section treats of the protection of woodlands against injuries due to organic agencies, such as weeds, parasites, domestic animals, animals of the chase, small rodents, birds, and insects; one hundred and five pages, or two-fifths of the whole book, being devoted to insects. The third section considers the protection of woodlands against forest fires, and other dangers arising from the wilfulness or carelessness of men, and contains little of value to American readers. Throughout the work there are paragraphs, and sometimes chapters, which have no bearing upon American conditions, yet the book as a whole is so sound and clear that all who are interested in its subject should own it. Now that the United States Government, the Boston Metropolitan Park Commission, and a few wealthy private citizens are making large reservations of forest lands, the American purchasers of this book should be many.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Angelus Domini, with Legendary Lays and Poems in Honor of the Blessed Virgin Mary. Baker & Taylor Co. \$1.00.

Bailey, P. Specimens of Argumentation. Modern. Henry Holt & Co. 50 cents.

Durkee, R. F. The Centenary of Louisville. Cincinnati: Robert Clarke & Co.

Fairfield, Rev. E. B. Letters on Baptism. Boston: Congregational Publishing Society. 75 cents.

Hazlitt, William. The Spirit of the Age. [Knickerbocker Nuggets.] Putnams. \$1.

Kenyon, F. G. Hyperides: The Orations Against Athenogenes and Philippiades. London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. \$1.60

Littell's Living Age. Oct.-Dec., 1893. Boston: Littell & Co.

Murray, David. The Story of Japan. Putnams. \$1.50.

Papers and Addresses at the Fifteenth Church Congress. Whittaker. \$1.

Rossetti, D. G. The House of Life. Boston: Copeland & Day. \$5.

Synder, A. A Short History of the Renaissance in Italy. Henry Holt & Co. \$1.75.

Tarz, Prof. R. S. Economic Geology of the United States. Macmillan. \$1.

The Ariel Shakspeare. Third Group. 7 vols. Putnams. Each 75 cents.

The Columbian Congress of the Universalist Church. Boston: Universalist Publishing House.

White, Gleeson. Book-Song: An Anthology of Poems of Books and Bookmen from Modern Authors. Armstrong. \$1.25.

Worthington, T. L. The Dwellings of the Poor. London: Sonnenchein; New York: Scribner. \$1.

Yonge, C. M. The Heir of Redclyffe. Rand, McNally & Co. 75 cents.

